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Concordia University–Portland

College of Education

Doctorate of Education Program

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Sarah Humphrey Brubaker

CANDIDATE FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Julie McCann, Ph.D., Faculty Chair Dissertation Committee

La'Toya Thomas-Dixon, Ed.D., Content Specialist

Patricia Shopland, Ed.D., Content Reader

Concordia University–Portland

2019

How White Professors of Diversity-Focused Courses in Teacher Education Programs Experience
and Engage White Preservice Teachers in Conversations Focused on Race

Sarah Humphrey Brubaker

Concordia University–Portland

College of Education

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the College of Education

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in

Transformational Leadership

Julie McCann, Ph.D., Faculty Chair Dissertation Committee

La'Toya Thomas-Dixon, Ed.D., Content Specialist

Patricia Shopland, Ed.D., Content Reader

Concordia University–Portland

2019

Abstract

This dissertation explored how White professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. This study was framed and guided by a conceptual framework of social constructionism, critical race theory (CRT), and critical Whiteness studies (CWS). This qualitative single case study explored the experiences and strategies of eight White professors who taught diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs. The study was specifically guided by two research subquestions: (a) How do White professors of diversity-focused courses experience the process of engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race? (b) What are the strategies utilized in conversations focused on race in diversity-focused courses, and how effective are they perceived to be by White professors of the diversity-focused courses in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race? Through In Vivo, Emotions, and Values codings as first cycle coding methods and Pattern coding as a second cycle coding method, six major themes emerged from the data. Findings indicated that while many White preservice teachers often initially responded negatively to discussions about race, it was possible for White professors of diversity-focused courses to interrupt students' White identity and White normativity through intentional and facilitated experiences with racial diversity and multimodal education.

Keywords: diversity-focused education, conversations focused on race, White preservice teachers, White professors, pedagogical strategies

Dedication

To the participants of this study, who are working humbly and rigorously to interrupt Whiteness and White normativity in future educators and to cultivate racial awareness and literacy for anti-racist allies and advocates.

Acknowledgements

All praise be to Jesus for the promise that His future kingdom will be perfect and all things will be re-ordered as they were meant to be. I am thankful that not only will His future kingdom be perfectly equitable and just, but that He has also called us to participate in working towards social and spiritual equity and justice now.

I would like to thank Dr. Julie McCann, my dissertation committee chair, for her constant and encouraging support during the process of completing this dissertation. I would also like to thank Dr. La'Toya Thomas-Dixon, and Dr. Patricia Shopland, my committee members, for their encouragement and commitment to making my work critical, excellent, and rigorous. Thank you all.

I would like to thank my family who supported me throughout this process, who encouraged me when I felt like quitting and who continuously and graciously reminded me of the bigger picture. Specifically, I would like to thank my mom for her hours of reading and editing my work for clarity and errors.

Finally, I would like to thank my friends for their overwhelming love and encouragement during this process. Specifically, I would like to thank Asia and Sarah for combing through and editing dissertation drafts. I would also specifically like to thank Daisy, Nicole, Jessy, Mary, Anne, and Vivek for their prayer, encouragement, and excitement over my work. My GCM and Monday Night Dinner families demonstrated such love to me by listening, praying, encouraging, and offering reprieve from the monotony and challenges of the research, analysis, and writing processes.

I love you all and truly could not have done this without each of you, so thank you.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

For every White teacher in the United States, there are approximately 10 students of color (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016, 2017). While the number of students of color is projected to increase from what was 49% in 2012 to 55% in 2024, the number of White teachers has remained in the mid-80% range for the last several decades (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). White teachers, then, will increasingly be responsible for teaching racially diverse students and will likely be the racial minority in their own classrooms. The increasing racial diversity in classrooms increases the responsibility for White preservice teachers to be able to successfully teach racially diverse students, which is problematic because research has reported that White preservice teachers maintain stereotypic and deficit thinking, prejudice, and bias against students of color, and avoid talking about race (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Picower, 2009).

White teachers' racial awareness, the ability to identify race as a social construction and the ways in which race impacts the way people experience living in society, is a critical aspect of teaching in racially diverse classrooms (Goodman, 1970; Ladson-Billings, 1998; Sleeter, 2016). When race is unrecognized as an impactful factor in how people experience and function in society, it can lead to the belief that unsuccessful students have some type of deficit within themselves or their communities that contribute to their lack of academic success. Several researchers reported White preservice teachers' inability to identify race as an impacting factor in society help to maintain deficit thinking, the belief that students of color are less intelligent and/or value education less than their White counterparts (Marx, 2004; Pimentel, 2010). Deficit thinking may lead White preservice teachers to believe that one of their jobs in the classroom is to fix their students of color and to offset their deficits (Anderson, 2013; Marx, 2004; Nelson &

Guerra, 2014). Though diversity-focused courses are required by many teacher education programs, race and issues related to race are often not required components, leading to the maintenance of implicit bias, racial stereotypes and prejudices (Gordon, 2005; National Council Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2008; King & Butler, 2015). Although many teacher education programs do include diversity-focused courses, previous research has shown that content and discussions about race are not necessarily included (Gordon, 2005). The efficiency of teacher education programs to prepare White teachers to successfully teach racially diverse students is, therefore, called into question. This research study, then, focused on how White professors of diversity-focused courses experience and engage White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race.

Background Context, History, and Conceptual Framework for the Problem

The cultural and social normalization of Whiteness and White culture is a result and continuation of White hegemony, leadership and dominance by White people over non-White people and is maintained through the social construction of race. The social constructionism theory contends that all knowledge and meaning are created from socially constructed norms or ideologies, including race (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Serge, 2016). Critical Race Theorists assert that race has been socially constructed and reified over years, maintaining and reproducing institutionalized racism and White normativity (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). White identity, White hegemony, and White normativity are displayed in educational institutions where students of color are less likely to be placed into enrichment tracks and are, conversely, more likely to be disciplined or identified as having either behavioral issues or special needs (Anderson, 2013; Walker, 2011). Because 83% of current primary and secondary school teachers in the United States are White, White normativity is reproduced structurally and subconsciously through the

educational system (Crowley & Smith, 2015). Even though many preservice teachers are expected to take at least one diversity-focused course during their teacher education program, White racial identity often allows for avoidance and interruption of discussions about race during a diversity-focused course (Galman, Pica-Smith, & Rosenberger, 2010; Gordon, 2005). Without critical self-reflection and racial awareness, it is difficult to interrupt the reproductive and institutional racism in the educational system (DiAngelo, 2012; Sleeter, 2008).

Previous literature reported the frustration that many professors of diversity-focused courses experience when trying to engage White students in conversations focused on race (Galman et al., 2010; Gayles, Kelly, Grays, Zhang, & Porter, 2015; Gorski, 2016). Many studies described professors experiencing White preservice teachers' use of defense mechanisms through arguments such as individualism, colorblindness, meritocracy, and victimization (Choi, 2008; Crowley & Smith, 2015; DiAngelo, 2011; Durham-Barnes, 2015; Picower, 2009). Each type of argumentation has been reported to help White preservice teachers maintain silence or avoid conversations about issues related to race.

The argument for individualism, used to avoid engagement and responsibility in racial issues, presupposes that each person is responsible only for individual actions and should be judged based on individual behavior (DiAngelo, 2012; Vaught & Castagno, 2008). Defining racism as overt words or actions against people of color allows White preservice teachers the ability to negate issues of race or distance themselves from conversations about race and racism with such claims as, "I have never owned slaves" or "I have never used the n-word" (Choi, 2008; DiAngelo, 2011). Choi (2008) claimed the argument of individualization is used by White preservice teachers during discussions about race because it calls for personal rather than systemic transformation, thus granting the ability to avoid or disengage in race issues.

Colorblindness ideology is another defense mechanism and argument that White preservice teachers utilize to avoid or disengage from conversations focused on race.

Colorblindness ideology denies the existence of any type of personal or structural racialized privilege (Choi, 2008; Mason, 2016; Ullucci, 2012). Several scholars reported White preservice teachers responding to discussions about race with claims that they only see students not their race (Sleeter, 2001; Ullucci, 2012; Walker, 2011). Claiming to be colorblind affords White preservice teachers the ability to avoid responsibility for the impact of race issues while simultaneously minimizing or invalidating the experiences of students of color. Colorblindness is closely related to the belief in meritocracy as both support the pre-supposition that race has no impact on an individual's success or social and economic mobilization (Philip & Benin, 2014; Ullucci, 2012).

Meritocracy is the belief that people who work hard and make moral decisions will be able to earn their ways to whatever goal they have; the American Dream (DiAngelo, 2011; Settlege, 2011). Many White Americans believe that anyone, regardless of race or socioeconomic status, will be able to earn success and achievement through diligent work and morality (Choi, 2008; Ullucci, 2012; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). Meritocracy is a common response to issues related to race because it denies there are privileges and advantages for White people, which set them up for success (DiAngelo, 2011; McIntosh 1989; Picower, 2009). Meritocracy, like colorblindness, espouses that society has progressed to a post-racist society, to the point that race does not affect the ability to succeed and achieve (Choi, 2008; DiAngelo, 2011). White privilege, therefore, has been reported to be a difficult concept for White preservice teachers, and which professors have had a difficult time discussing in diversity-focused courses (Durham-Barnes, 2015; Picower, 2009). When White preservice teachers

believe society is meritocratic, it is difficult for them to understand White privilege and allows for claims of racial victimization.

Finally, previous research reported many White preservice teachers claims of victimization to avoid racialized conversations or situations (DiAngelo, 2012; Picower, 2009). Several studies reported claimed racial victimization occurred when White preservice teachers felt uncomfortable or defensive during conversations about or situations with race and racial diversity (DiAngelo, 2012; Moon, 2016; Picower, 2009). Victimization can be manifested either passively or aggressively and often includes claims of feeling fear during a conversation or situation regarding race (DiAngelo, 2012). Using the defensive argument of victimization not only allows White preservice teachers to evade discussing race, but it also changes the roles of people of color from victims to perpetrators, impacting interactions between White teachers and their students of color (DiAngelo, 2012).

DiAngelo (2012) asserted that many of these responses to and engagements with discussions about race by White preservice teachers are impacted by White fragility. White fragility is the state in which White people, when confronted with a conversation or situation about race, become so uncomfortable they attempt to remove themselves from that situation (DiAngelo, 2012). These attempts can be made by claiming fear, guilt, misunderstanding, ignorance, engaging in argumentation, or even simply maintaining silence. The combination of White normativity, the manifestations of White racial identity, and the increasing racial diversity in classrooms demonstrate the need for research into how professors of diversity-focused courses experience and engage White preservice teachers in conversations about race.

Statement of the Problem

White identity and White normativity are both consciously and subconsciously maintained in White preservice teachers. Critical race theorists and critical Whiteness studies theorists maintain that the social construction of Whiteness and its attached normativity and hegemony are deeply ingrained in society (Guess, 2006; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Nayak, 2007). While Critical Race theorists maintain racism will never be overcome in the United States (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995), Critical Whiteness theorists contend that small and individual change can occur through the racial-awareness of individual White people (Nayak, 2007). According to the NCATE's (2008) diversity standard, the NCATE (2008) expects that upon completion of a teacher education program, White preservice teachers will be able to successfully teach and interact with racially diverse learners and their families. Within teacher education programs, the expectation for racial diversity awareness and literacy can and should take place in diversity-focused courses or in courses infused with racial diversity components.

However, both previous and current research studies reported that White in-service teachers who have gone through the diversity-focused courses required in teacher education programs, and White preservice teachers currently enrolled in teacher education programs were not prepared to successfully teach racially diverse students (Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Picower, 2009; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). The expectation of an educator's ability to teach and interact with racially diverse students and their families places the onus of challenging and transforming deeply ingrained race ideology onto the professors of diversity-focused courses. The challenge of engagement and transformation cannot take place without difficult and critical conversations about race and issues related to race. This study, therefore, sought to extend the literature by exploring how White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race (DiAngelo, 2011; King & Butler, 2015;

Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Matias, Viesca, Garrison-Wade, Tandon, & Galindo, 2014; NCATE, 2008; Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Segall & Garrett, 2013; Sleeter, 2016; Vaught & Castagno, 2008).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to develop a deeper understanding of how White professors who taught diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Understanding the experiences and strategies of White professors who teach diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs can illuminate how White preservice teachers engage in discussions about race as well as effective pedagogical and discourse strategies. It can also extend discussion on needed professional and institutional development to improve the racial awareness and teaching methods of White professors of diversity courses. Finally, it can extend dialogue regarding the ways in which professors of diversity-focused courses can experience community and be supported through the complexity and difficulty of diversity-focused content.

Research Questions

This study sought to add to the knowledge gained through previous research studies regarding how White professors of diversity-focused courses experience and engage White preservice teachers in conversations about race by exploring the following research question:

1. How do White professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs engage in and experience conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers?

The specific subquestions explored were:

- a. How do White professors of diversity-focused courses experience the process of engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?
- b. What are the strategies utilized in conversations focused on race in diversity-focused courses, and how effective are they perceived to be by White professors of the diversity-focused courses in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?

Rationale, Relevance, and Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore how White professors, specifically those teaching diversity-focused courses, experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Because of the disparity between the increasing number of non-White students in the American educational system and the unchanging and overwhelming number of White educators within the system, it is crucial that White preservice teachers engage in critical and reflective discussions about race. Previous studies corroborated the difficulty both White preservice teachers and White professors themselves have in talking about race and racism (Galman et al., 2010; Gayles et al., 2015; Picower, 2009). Critical Whiteness studies theorists contend White hegemony and normativity cannot be challenged until White people are able to critically reflect on the reality of White racial identity and the systems put in place to maintain White racial supremacy (Matias & Mackey, 2015). As cultural and social constructs are partly passed down in the educational system, it is critical that White professors of diversity-focused courses and White preservice teachers are aware of and able to discuss issues of race and racism.

Exploring how White professors experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in discussions about race could offer implications for engaging and alleviating hostility and

resistance offered by White preservice teachers. The ability for White preservice teachers to teach students of all races successfully is crucial for social and racial equity. However, without reflection and awareness of their White racial identity, White preservice teachers were unable to critically explore their race, the implications of their race, institutional racism in the educational system, or the racialized experiences of their students (DiAngelo, 2012; Matias & Mackey, 2015). The exploration of how White professors experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race might primarily be used for discussion regarding effective or needed pedagogical and discourse strategies for White professors. Secondly, this study may offer implications for discussions on professional and institutional development of racial awareness identity, race-issues awareness, and race dialogue training (Galman et al., 2010; Gayles et al., 2015; Gordon, 2005). Finally, this study may offer a sense of validation, comradery, and community for professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education courses who feel isolated as a result of the uniqueness of their course content (Gordon, 2005; Gorski, 2016).

Definition of Terms

Key conceptual terms for this study are defined below:

Diversity focused-courses. Courses with specific objectives, content, or pedagogical skills directed at increasing the knowledge and pedagogy of preservice teachers to successfully teach racially, ethnically, and culturally diverse students (Arsal, 2015).

Professors of diversity-focused courses. Higher education faculty members in teacher education programs who teach courses specifically focused on educating preservice teachers on diversity issues, pedagogy, and ways to engage diverse learners and their families.

White normativity. The normalization of White culture, dress, speech, and behavior, which are then, either consciously or subconsciously, constructed to be the overarching standard by which all peoples are judged and measured. White normativity is often invisible and is manifested by the belief that White culture, backgrounds, and experiences are universal and normal (DiAngelo, 2012; Sleeter, 2016; Ward, 2008).

White identity. The ideological and racial identity that results from the normalization of Whiteness and White hegemony. Due to social dominance or White hegemony, White normativity, the lack of contact with racial diversity, and internalized ideologies and stereotypes of people of color, White people are often oblivious to their race, the social positionality their race affords them, and the impact that Whiteness has on people of color. Ultimately, White identity is manifested in the taking for granted or being unaware of status and privilege, which come from being White (DiAngelo, 2011; Lawrence & Tatum, 1997)

Deficit thinking. The belief that non-White, non-English speaking students are at disadvantages due to deficits in their communities, families, or intellectual abilities. Deficit thinking charges families and students, rather than the educational system, for academic and social failures and promotes the belief that White teachers must fix the deficits within students' lives (Anderson, 2013; Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Walker, 2011).

Social constructionism. The sociological theory that holds that all reality, including belief and meaning, are the result of communal standards formed by a dominant group. Social constructionism is concerned with epistemology, specifically societal epistemology, and the ways in which individuals within societies practice everyday life; creating and reifying reality. Social constructionists affirm the subjectivity of reality and assert the plurality of experiences

recognizing each society gives value to certain concepts or ideologies, which then maintain dominance in culture (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Kim, 2001; Serge, 2016)

Critical race theory. Critical race theorists argue racism is both active and normalized in society within the United States. Critical race theory (CRT) is predicated on the assumptions that racism is ordinary in society and the institutional structures of the United States advantage White people and disadvantage people of color. CRT theorists hold that because racial inequity and bias are so deeply engrained systemically and socially in people, they will be not be changed (Harris, 2012; Ladson-Billings, 1998; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995).

Critical Whiteness studies. Critical Whiteness studies (CWS) theorists presuppose that White racial supremacy and hegemony were purposefully created and are intentionally reproduced in every aspect of society. CWS contends, however, that White hegemony can be deconstructed through racialized self-awareness. CWS is the study of how Whiteness (the normalization of White dominant culture) is engaged, repeated, and expressed, and it focuses on the ways in which White racial supremacy can be dismantled. CWS theorists neither call for the destruction of the White race nor the condemnation or guilt of White people, but rather for racial awareness to eradicate White racial supremacy (Guess, 2006; Matias & Mackey, 2015; Nayak, 2007).

Pedagogical strategies. The strategies used to engage, teach, and encourage student participation in race conversations. Different scholars have utilized different strategies for engaging White preservice teachers in discussion about race such as journal reflections, small group facilitation, democratic processes, and media and text analysis (Gayles et al., 2015; Pimentel, 2010; Durham-Barnes, 2015).

Chapter 1 Summary

This study explored the experiences White professors who taught diversity-focused courses had in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Specifically, it explored the experiences that White professors had in interacting with White students during discussions about race as well as the strategies used to talk about race and issues related to race. Chapter 2 will review previous literature and research studies regarding White preservice teachers' interaction with discussions about race, White professors' experiences in those discussions, and the strategies utilized in those discussions. Chapter 3 will review and rationalize the research methodology and design of the study, and will include data collection methods, data analysis choices, rationales, and procedures. Chapter 3 will also review all information regarding participation in the study and refer to all participant and data collection documentation. Chapter 4 of the dissertation will review and present the findings of the study from the data collection methods. Chapter 5 will include a discussion of the findings, connections to previous research, implications of the findings, and suggested further research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Projections estimate that by 2023, racial and ethnic minorities will make up the majority of school students in the United States (U.S. Census, 2008). Conversely, the vast majority of the educational workforce remains approximately 83% White (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). As diversity increases in the United States educational system so does the need for teachers to be able to teach and interact with racially diverse students and their families. As a result of the increased segregation in the United States, many White preservice teachers have very little interactions or experiences with racial diversity (Fischer, 2011; Orfield, Kuscera, & Siegel-Hawley, 2012). The lack of interactions and experiences with racial diversity in combination with the social construction of racial ideology and identity from family, friends, and the media, has impacted White preservice teachers' ability to critically think about and discuss issues related to race and to engage in diverse settings (Banks, 2006; Gordon, 2005). With the majority of preservice teachers identifying as White, it is accordingly important that teacher education programs engage White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race (Chavez-Reyes, 2012; Gayles et al., 2015).

Diversity-focused courses have been established to educate and engage students on issues of diversity, including how to effectively teach and interact with racially diverse students and their families (Pollock, Deckman, Mira, & Shalaby, 2010). The ability to teach diverse students is recognized to be such a crucial component of teacher education that the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE; 2008) affirms diversity as one of its six core standards for accrediting teacher preparation programs. The NCATE (2008) asserts that in addition to being able to teach and interact in culturally competent ways with diverse groups of students and families, teacher candidates should also be able to help diverse students learn in

ways most effective for each student's specific culture and background. Scholars such as Banks (2006), Gay (1990), Milner (2009), and Sleeter (2001) have urged teacher education programs to infuse diversity components throughout teacher preparation curriculum, and to require at least one course focusing solely on diversity issues such as race. Some teacher education programs still do not include the NCATE's (2008) suggested amount of diversity components (King & Butler, 2015), and some leave diversity to be undefined and ambiguous; leaving the content of those courses to the discretion of individual professors (Gordon, 2005).

Study Topic

This study explored how White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. White preservice teachers' resistance to engage in discussions about race is well documented in previous research studies (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Galman et al., 2010; Picower, 2009). It is less common, however, to find research specifically exploring how professors experience engaging White preservice teachers in conversations about race (Dyce & Owusu-Ansah, 2016; Gorski, 2016). This research is significant in view of the fact that many White in-service teachers, after having completed required diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs, still maintained stereotypic and deficit thinking, prejudice, bias towards students of color, and the inability to discuss race (Milner, 2009; Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Segall & Garrett, 2013; Vaught & Castagno, 2008). This research study, therefore, explored how White professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race.

Context

The purpose of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs are to engage students in intellectual and experiential knowledge about diversity, social justice, and equity values (Kumar & Hamer, 2012). The contextual need for the exploration of the experiences of professors of diversity courses begins with Whiteness, or White normativity, the cultural and social normalization and dominance of White racial culture, standards, and expectations (DiAngelo, 2016). White hegemony, the dominance, whether subtle or explicit, of White peoples over non-White peoples, has been maintained throughout the history of Anglo-European colonization (Andrews, 2016; Gibbons, 2016; Spanierman & Smith, 2017). Due to social dominance, lack of contact with diversity, and internalized understanding and stereotypes of people of color, many White preservice teachers are racially illiterate, or oblivious to their own race and the effects their race has in society (DiAngelo, 2011; Lawrence & Tatum, 1997). Because Whiteness, and the dominance obtained through it, is typically invisible to White people, White preservice teachers tend to avoid uncomfortable and confrontational conversations about race (Philip & Benin, 2014; Picower, 2009).

Previous literature identified several ways in which White preservice teachers respond to and engage in conversations regarding race: claiming individuality, espousing colorblind ideology, arguing for meritocracy, and claiming racial victimization. Individualist claims presuppose people, rather than institutions, are racist (DiAngelo, 2011). Choi (2008) claimed the argument of individualization is used because it calls for personal rather than systemic transformation, thereby granting White preservice teachers the ability to avoid or disengage from race dialogue and issues. Colorblind ideology, like individualism, denies the existence of any type of institutional racialized privilege and invalidates any racialized experiences. White

preservice teachers have been reported to claim they do not see race, they only see students (DiAngelo, 2011; Picower, 2009). Colorblindness is closely related to meritocracy, which is the belief that people who work hard and make moral decisions will be successful. Race, according to the myth of meritocracy, is not a variable in peoples' personal, academic, or professional success, and does not impact the way they experience living in society (Choi, 2008; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). Many White preservice teachers claim that they are victimized not only by reverse racism, where people of color are institutionally favored, but also by the discomfort, fear, and guilt which often accompany racialized conversations or situations (DiAngelo, 2012; Picower, 2009).

Significance

Significant work has been done to explore and document the need for diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs (DiAngelo, 2012; Gordon, 2005; Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Picower, 2009). Previous literature has also documented the extensive investigation into the beliefs and experiences of White preservice teachers (Durham-Barnes, 2015; Picower, 2009; You & Matteo, 2013). Less research, however, is dedicated to exploring the experiences and pedagogies of the professors responsible for teaching concepts related to race (Gordon, 2005; Gorski, 2016). The combination of the vast majority of the educational workforce identifying as White along with the implicit bias that accompanies White normativity indicates a significant need to explore the experiences and strategies of diversity-focused professors in discussing race with White preservice teachers (Gorski, 2012; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). This research study is significant in adding to and extending previous literature concentrating on White professors of diversity-focused courses and the pedagogical strategies utilized in conversations about race.

This study additionally provides implications both for professional and institutional development in racial identity awareness and racial literacy and pedagogies for discussing race.

Problem Statement

Many White preservice teachers have had minimal experiences with and exposure to racial diversity, resulting in stereotypic, deficit, and bias thinking towards students of color (Fischer, 2011; Kumar & Hamer, 2012). In addition to holding stereotypic, deficit, and bias thinking towards students of color, many White preservice teachers had difficulty discussing race and racism issues (Picower, 2009; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). White preservice teachers with stereotypic, deficit, and bias thinking, then, become teachers who are not only unable to successfully teach students from diverse backgrounds, but also reproduce both White normativity and its ramifications in the classroom (Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Sleeter, McIntyre, & Demers, 2016). Because professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs are responsible for preparing and equipping future teachers to teach in diverse classrooms, their strategies and experiences in engaging discussions about race should be explored.

Understanding these experiences and strategies offers implications for how diversity-focused professors can engage White preservice teachers in difficult conversations about race. This study additionally offers discussions about curriculum in teacher education programs and professional development for professors who teach diversity-focused courses. The specific research question this study explored was:

1. How do White professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs engage in and experience conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers?

The specific subquestions explored were:

- a. How do White professors of diversity-focused courses experience the process of engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?
- b. What are the strategies utilized in conversations focused on race in diversity-focused courses, and how effective are they perceived to be by White professors of the diversity-focused courses in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?

Organization

This literature review is organized by exploring research that reports the ways in which White preservice teachers engage conversations about race. Next, the experiences of the professors of diversity-focused courses in engaging White students in discussions about race are explored. Finally, the strategies and pedagogies that professors of diversity-focused courses utilize while engaging White students in conversations about race are explored.

Conceptual Framework

The intrinsic and structural racism that inhabits the educational system and the ways in which it supports and sustains White hegemony demand exploration into the experiences of those responsible for challenging the worldview and ideologies of future White teachers. Professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs are tasked to engage White students' socially constructed realities and ideologies within Whiteness (Ladson-Billings, 1998; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Sleeter, 2016). This research study combined concepts from social constructionism, critical race theory (CRT), and critical Whiteness studies (CWS) to understand how White professors of diversity-focused courses experience and engage White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race.

Social Constructionism

Social constructionism theorists assert that knowledge is subjective and created through interactions with the world. Knowledge and meaning, additionally, are constructed from social and contextual sources (Guterman, 2006; Sommers-Flanagan & Sommers-Flanagan, 2012). Because reality is a communal construct, the values and ideals that are perceived as normative and acceptable or, conversely, inappropriate and unacceptable are based on social acceptance of the dominant group (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Social constructionism theorists maintain that authority figures within a society either create or are provided with social meaning and knowledge, and then determine how and to whom that knowledge is dispersed (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Construction of epistemologies that question, expose, or challenge dominant social construction are viewed as threatening and deemed to be contradictory and dangerous to social welfare, meaning it is difficult to deconstruct the social construction of the dominant group (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Two types of socialization reproducing the social construction of the dominant group are: (a) socialization whereby group values and experiences are conformed to the already constructed reality, and (b) the process whereby society accepts and internalizes what has been constructed and transforms it from a construct to a societal and individual objectivity (Berger & Luckmann, 1996; Serge, 2016).

The social construction of Whiteness and the resulting consequences of inequity in society, specifically in educational institutions, influence students', parents', faculty, staff, and school leaders' beliefs and experiences (Guess, 2006; Nayak, 2007; Norris, 2016; Sleeter et al., 2016). The preservation and continued manifestations of historical and modern racism and inequity in education require the exploration of the experiences and strategies of professors

whose role it is to challenge and deconstruct such social constructions in preservice teachers (Alt, 2017; Atwater, 1996; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). Social constructionism is a logical framework in researching racial diversity issues in education because it underscores knowledge as a collaborative and interactive practice whereby meaning is created through social experiences and interactions (Berger & Lockmann, 1966; Holzner, 1972; Serge, 2016). Alt (2017) contended that there are three formative tenets of constructionism, which involve cognition, affection, and behavior; each of which contribute to social meaning and normativity. The interactive nature of learning and meaning construction occurs between students as peers and between students and professors (Alt, 2017; Kim, 2001; Serge, 2016). The result of these interactions is either the reproduction of social construction or the confrontation of previously constructed meaning and ideologies resulting in transformation, which leads to cognitive dissonance (Alt, 2017; Atwater, 1996; Mezirow, 1991).

Critical Race Theory

Critical race theorists contend racism is both normal and intentional within the systemic structures of the United States (Harris, 2012; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1998). Education as an institution, then, has not only been built upon and influenced by White racial supremacy, but continues to assist in maintaining it (Atwater, 1996; Ladson-Billings, 1998; Philip & Benin, 2014). Harris (2012) rhetorically queried how society can be intrinsically racist while legal and civil legislation appear to promote and enforce equity and anti-discrimination. Crenshaw (2011), however, contended that this paradox is possible because civil rights legislation strategically obscures rather than destroys racism.

Figure 1 illustrates this researcher's original illustration of the integration of CRT and social constructionism in the maintenance and reproduction of White hegemony and normativity

within the educational system. The foundational entity in facilitating White racial supremacy in the educational system, according CRT, is Anglo-American hegemony and normativity. Anglo-American hegemony and normativity then foster and maintain White identity (or Whiteness), which are further reified through socially constructed experiences. The social constructions of students and professors then, either consciously or subconsciously, are brought into teacher education programs (Guess, 2006; Serge, 2016; Spanierman & Smith, 2017). The result of social and institutional construction is continuing inequity in school systems such as educational resource allocation, inequity in educational policies, and the maintenance of deficit and stereotypic thinking toward students of color (Anderson, 2013; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Matias & Mackey, 2015; Philip & Benin, 2014).

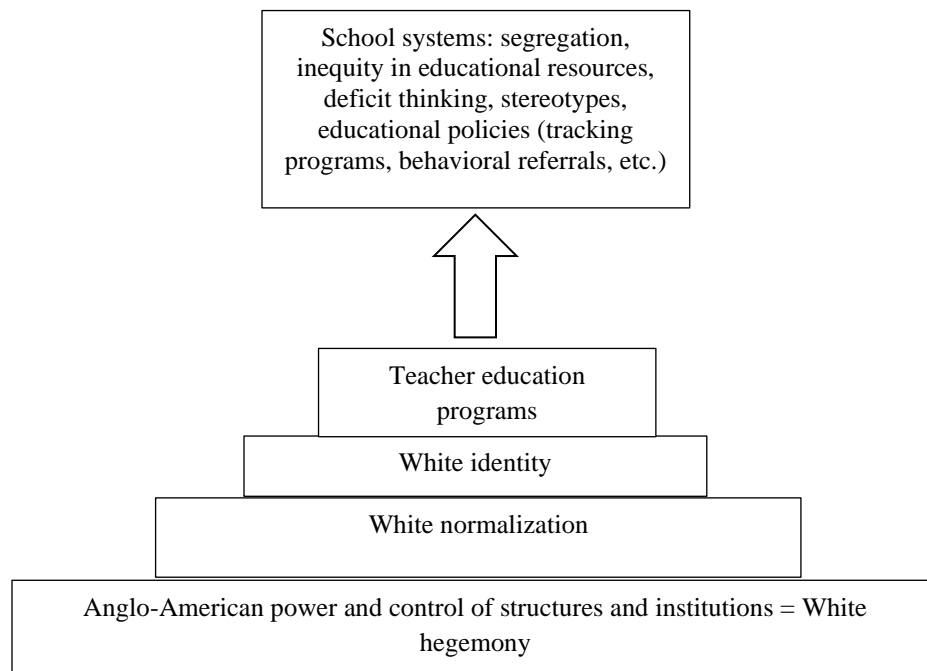


Figure 1. Structural framework of influences in education according to critical race theory.

A significant portion of research relating to race in teacher education primarily explored White students' experiences of, responses to, and impact by multicultural and diversity-focused

education (Bowman, 2009, 2010; Cole & Zhou, 2013; Dyce & Owusu-Ansah, 2016). The hegemony and normativity of Whiteness and the resulting assumptions are difficult to detect and often require external experiences or confrontations to stimulate cognitive dissonance, which can then result in critical acknowledgement and self-awareness (Guess, 2006; Mason, 2016; Serge, 2016; Sleeter, 2017). The inability to detect or reflect on the outward symbols of White racial supremacy, such as using racial stereotypes, committing microaggressions, and engaging in deficit thinking places substantial cognitive and emotional expectations on professors of diversity-focused courses (Gayles et al., 2015; Gorski, 2016; Shim, 2018). Additionally, because of the entrenched and invisible nature of Whiteness as a social construct, White professors who teach diversity-focused courses manage numerous pairing of paradoxical views and interactions within themselves as well as with their students (Galman et al., 2010; Gayles et al., 2015; Gorski, 2016). While Critical Race theorists do not believe White hegemony can be abolished, they do assert the possibility of acknowledgement and interruption, which can deconstruct socially constructed race norms (Harris, 2012; Ladson-Billings, 2001; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995).

Critical Whiteness Studies

Whiteness as a dominant social construct creates a foundational need for diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs (Guess, 2006; Sleeter, 2016). Critical Whiteness studies (CWS) theorists contend that while Whiteness is mutable and offers privileges to those who are members of the dominant group, it is a social construct and thus able to be changed and weakened to achieve a more equitable society (Nayak, 2007). A fundamental aspect of CWS is the pressure to intervene in and control the replication of Whiteness and the unearned privileges bound to it (Nayak, 2007). Whiteness is the foundation for all institutional structures in the United States and, as Allen (2001) contended, has directed both historical and current society.

Philip and Benin (2014) argued that teacher education programs, even those focused on social justice and equity outcomes, still maintain and propagate White normativity. The United States educational system has been built on and continues to operate within White middle-class America's concepts of meritocracy and success (Anderson, 2013; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Matias & Mackey, 2015; Sleeter, 2001). Students, most often students of color, who struggle to assimilate into the expectations of the predominantly White female education workforce are labeled as "at risk" or having "behavior problems," over-placed into special education classes, and under-placed into enrichment tracks (Anderson, 2013; Walker, 2011).

Diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs provide preservice teachers, particularly White preservice teachers, cognitive and experiential opportunities to see and discuss the realities of race (Gay, 2002; Gorski, 2012; Sleeter, 2016). Without acknowledging White normativity as the foundations of institutions such as government, education, and social society, recognition of the ways in which Whiteness is experienced and infused into meaning cannot be acknowledge or questioned (Matias & Mackey, 2015; Nayak, 1997). The lack of awareness and acknowledgement of White normativity continue in teacher education programs, resulting in inequity for students of color (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995; Matias & Mackey, 2015;). Figure 2 depicts this researcher's original illustration of the social construction of White identity through the lens of CWS, which is founded upon White normativity and then maintained through aspects of government and society; reproducing experiences and meaning.

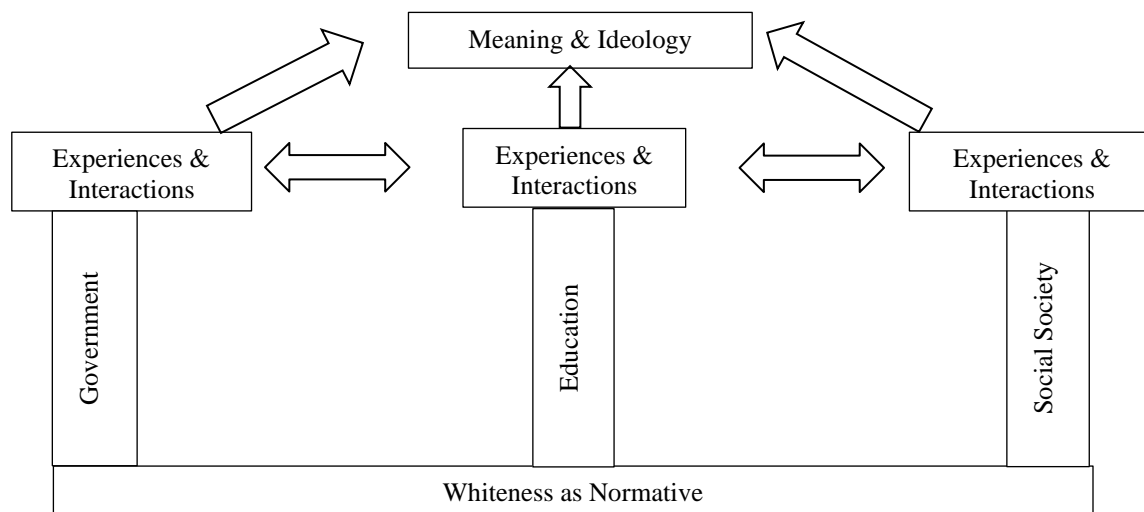


Figure 2. Societal and systemic construction and maintenance of White hegemony.

Integration

The integration of social constructionism, CRT, and CWS comprised the conceptual framework that this study employed to explore the experiences and strategies of White professors engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race. Social constructionism is intrinsically linked to CRT and CWS because any identification of systemic and societal inequities, including within the education system, threaten and cause cognitive, affective, social, and behavioral dissonance (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Holzner, 1972; Serge, 2016). Current social construction formulated around race has benefitted the dominant group for so long that any dissonance resulting from new experiences or realities regarding race is reformulated, rather than analyzed, to remain non-threatening (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Hence, overt racism has been reformulated into modern racism through individualism, colorblind ideology, reversal of victimization, and arguments for meritocracy (Andrews, 2016; Choi, 2008; DiAngelo, 2012). The practical forms of modern racism, then, are accepted by the dominant group in society and

demonstrated through increased segregation (Gibbons, 2016), White flight (DiAngelo, 2010), educational tracking programs (Anderson, 2013, Walker, 2011), and over-representation of students of color in behavioral and special-needs groups in schools (Swadener, 2010).

Multicultural and diversity education theorists aspire to transform educational policies and practices in order for each student to have equal opportunity for success (Banks, 2006; Kumar & Hamer, 2012; Sleeter, 2016). A means to accomplish this in teacher education programs is by incorporating diversity-focused courses, experiences with diversity, and diverse institutional climates which might highlight and work to interrupt the inherent inequity of the current social system (Holzner, 1972). White hegemonic “ideologies . . . are structured on the collective level around authorities and loyalties [and] become directly constitutive of the structure itself” (Holzner, 1972, p. 147). The construction of ideologies is a crucial rationale for an exploration of the experiences of experts of diversity knowledge. Professors of diversity-focused courses have the ability and opportunity to utilize their intellectual and experiential authority on the social construction of societal norms in interactions with White preservice teachers (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Gorski, 2016; Holzner, 1972; Serge, 2016).

Review of Research Literature and Methodological Literature

The following section is a review of previous literature conducted on issues related to White preservice teachers, diversity-focused education, and White professors of diversity focused courses. This section is organized by first a discussion of literature regarding White preservice teachers engaging in conversations focused on race, the experiences of professors teaching diversity-focused courses, and pedagogical strategies for discussing race with White preservice teachers. Following the discussion of previous literature, this section will review the methodological choices of researchers conducting research related to White preservice teachers

discussing race and the experiences of professors teaching diversity-focused courses. The following section offers a synthesis of previous research followed, finally, by a critique of that research.

White Preservice Teachers Engaging in Conversations Focused on Race

There is a much literature devoted to exploring White preservice teachers' responses to content related to race in teacher education programs. The most commonly reported responses were various forms of resistance wherein White students worked to interrupt or avoid discussing race. White preservice teachers' resistance to race conversations has been reported to take the form of silence, denial, dismissal, minimization, joking, and re-direction (LaDuke, 2009; McIntyre, 1997; Picower, 2009). Haviland (2008) labeled these resistance responses as "White educational discourse," in which issues related to race are overlooked and avoided in order to maintain White hegemony. White educational discourse works from the presupposition that racism is personal rather than institutional. The belief in personal rather than systemic racism has led to the belief that racism exists in a good/bad binary (DiAngelo, 2016; Haviland, 2008). The good/bad binary of racism drove White preservice students to resist and renegotiate conversations focused on race to maintain the image of good White nonracist people (DiAngelo, 2016). Scholars such as DiAngelo (2016) and Gayles et al. (2015) argued that content and discussions about race and racial identity are crucial in teacher education programs because without them, White preservice teachers' racial identities remain unchallenged and undeveloped. Unchallenged White racial identities were then manifested in the classroom and directly impacted students of color (Gordon, 2005; Nelson & Guerra, 2014).

Crowley and Smith (2015) used CWS as a conceptual framework in a collective case study to explore how White preservice social studies teachers interacted in conversations about

race. In the study, Crowley and Smith (2015) included 27 preservice teachers (20 White students and seven students of color) from the researchers' methods-based education course. Data were collected through fieldworker observations, seminar transcripts, participant reflections, and participant-generated artifacts. Data were first analyzed through line-by-line coding followed by axial coding to identify themes across all forms of data collection. The two major themes identified from the data were: (a) White students' inability to see race as a structural issue, and (b) White students understanding Whiteness through their personal experiences.

While participants in Crowley and Smith's (2015) case study were able to understand the concept of White privilege, they were unable to connect it to a structural or institutional system of racism. White participants defined racism as individual, overt, and malicious action or speech against people of color. White preservice teachers also defended the concept of reverse racism and used the existence of social programs, such as affirmative action, to resist and minimize the impact of White privilege. Participants expressed positive views towards stereotypes rationalizing them as ways to understand unknown and different people and circumstances. Participants judged different styles of speech, dress, and personal behavior through the standard set by White normativity and used their own lenses and personal experiences to validate or invalidate issues related to race. Crowley and Smith (2015) postulated that because participants did not have explicit or visible interactions with racial diversity, they assumed their experiences were objective and that people of color also did not have experiences explicitly related to race. Because many of the White participants did not have experiences regarding race or that explicitly contrasted or showcased their privilege with those of non-privileged identities, the common assumption was, with the exception of a few individuals, White people and people of color had the same experiences.

Durham-Barnes (2015) reported the minimization of White privilege, expressions of White guilt, over-participation in discussions, and discomfort were common during conversations about race with White preservice teachers. The data were collected primarily through focus groups where preservice teachers watched and then discussed the documentary *The Color of Fear* (Wah, 1994). Durham-Barnes (2015) was specifically interested in exploring: (a) how White preservice teachers engage in discussions focused on race, and (b) the ways in which the racial make-up of a group and/or the race of the facilitator impacted White student's participation. Each of the 21 participants was enrolled in a diversity-focused course; 18 of the students identified as White and six identified as students of color. Participants were placed into five groups of between three and seven members, with three groups comprised of all-White participants and two comprised of a mix of White preservice teachers and preservice teachers of color. As a result of the interest in the impact of the race of the facilitator on the participants' discussions about race, the race of the facilitator was noted in each group. Two of the three all-White participant groups were led by Black facilitators, and White facilitators led the remaining all-White group and both mixed-race participant groups. Data were collected through entrance surveys, focus group transcriptions, and exit surveys. Pre-study surveys identified participants' interactions with and attitudes towards race issues and racial diversity. Focus group questions were semistructured and related to specific people or issues shown in the documentary. Finally, exit surveys, which identified participants' experiences, willingness, and comfort in the discussions were compared to the entrance surveys. The focus groups were individually examined, manually coded, and then compared both with each other group individually and then with all groups as a whole.

Pre-surveys in Durham-Barnes' (2015) study revealed that 81% of participants grew up in racially homogenous communities, 33% had few opportunities to engage in conversations about race prior to college, and less than 50% believed talking about race was challenging and crucial for social development. The dominant themes that emerged from data analysis were: (a) White privilege, (b) White guilt, (c) discomfort, (d) the absence of a social consciousness, and (e) feeling powerless against structural racism. One group of all-White participants struggled to accept White privilege and expressed discomfort at the emotional expressiveness of the characters in the documentary who were people of color. In this same group, no one challenged or disagreed with each other while discussing race in the focus group. White participants in all groups wrestled with defining Whiteness, and many White males felt uncomfortable discussing race openly for fear of being seen as racist. Those White preservice teachers who did acknowledge White privilege experienced feelings of powerlessness to stimulate social change. The mixed-race groups, however, engaged in more critical discussions than the all-White participant groups. Exit surveys indicated that while some White participants expressed feeling uncomfortable discussing race in general, many experienced particular discomfort while discussing race with facilitators of color.

Pollock et al. (2010) used in-class discussions and journal reflections to explore (a) what skills educators needed in order to be successful in engaging race issues in the classroom and, (b) how courses and professional development could be improved for successful engagement with race issues. Based on the question, "What can I do?" the researchers examined major themes or "tensions" in participant-generated reflections. Three major themes were repeatedly mentioned in student journals: (a) concrete pedagogies, (b) the efficacy of personal antiracism in structural racism, and (c) personal wrestling with racial identity. The study took place in a half-semester

course focused on race with 51 enrolled teacher candidates. Data were collected through fieldworker observation notes during small and large-group discussions and journal reflections. Participants were given the choice of whether or not to submit their journal reflections at the end of the semester for the research study; 33 of the 51 enrolled students chose to submit their journals. Because the researchers felt the reflection journals contained more reflective and analytical discussions than the group discussions, journal data were analyzed primarily and discussions data were analyzed secondarily. Journals were collectively read and coded using discourse analysis in exploring content related to the three themes or tensions.

Pollock et al. (2010) described participants' struggles to find concrete opportunities to participate in antiracist teaching in the midst of structural inequity. Most of the White preservice teachers were more aware of their limitations rather than their potential. According to the researchers, this mode of thinking allowed participants to resist antiracist teaching principles and strategies due to perceived difficulty and time consumption. White preservice teachers argued that because antiracist pedagogy was too difficult and required too much time, they must be content with being good rather than antiracist teachers. Pollock et al. (2010) actively sought to decrease feelings of defensiveness and resistance during the course, and therefore explicitly communicated the purpose of both the course and the research study was to focus on principles and strategies for antiracist teaching rather than personal racism. Many White participants, however, still avoided or interrupted discussions about race by lamenting that either the material was too abstract or too concrete, or they could not engage in antiracist teaching until they personally and individually developed racial literacy. However, while many participants complained about needing concrete content in the course to participate in discussions, they were not able to discuss specific and concrete strategies for personal racial awareness and literacy.

Experiences of Professors of Diversity-Focused Courses

Several key studies explored the experiences that professors of diversity-focused courses have with engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Many studies exploring professors of diversity-focused courses reported professors' experiencing White preservice teachers' resistance of discussing concepts or issues relating to race.

Dunn, Dotson, Ford, and Roberts (2014) used qualitative research to investigate the experiences of four professors of diversity-focused courses with preservice teachers. The researchers began the reflective research study as a result of the frustration of talking about discussions about race moving from being productive to unproductive and even damaging. Data were collected from four professors of diversity-focused courses in a teacher education program. Each professor critically reflected on their own experience in engaging student resistance during diversity-focused courses. The researchers focused on resistance to race issues, language diversity, sexuality issues, and issues surrounding intersectionality.

Dunn et al. (2014) reported preservice teachers' resistance of the stated areas of diversity. However, White preservice specifically resisted talking about race by minimizing structural racial inequity and arguing social programs, such as affirmative action, prove the existence of reverse racism. Researchers described White students entering conversations focused on race with presuppositions of White normativity, which impacted their ability to engage in meaningful and critical conversations. White preservice teachers believed that race was objective, it did not personally affect them as White students, and it was more important to engage with the objective rather than the subjective. Dunn et al. (2014) reported, however, that several strategies were effective in interacting with students in conversations about race including: personal reflections on diversity, diverse site visits, projects focused on diversity, and self-reflections on identity

privileges. These strategies were found to be beneficial because they engaged students in peer conversations and allowed the professor to facilitate conversations rather than deliver lectures.

White professors in particular reported not only experiencing difficulty while engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race, but also in grappling with their own White racial identity (Galman et al., 2010; Gordon, 2005). Sleeter (2017) urged teacher education programs to include professional development for faculty members to identify, work through, and develop awareness and of their own racial identities. Gordon (2005) expressed concern that teacher education programs reify White normativity because the majority of professors responsible for engaging White preservice teachers in racial awareness and literacy are White and lack racial awareness and racial literacy themselves.

Gordon (2005) critically reflected on her own conflict in engaging White teacher candidates in conversations about race and the difficulty of regulating her own White racial identity. Gordon (2005) specifically explored the ways in which her personal desire for and employment of colorblindness ideology impacted her ability to facilitate discussions about race with White students. Additionally, Gordon (2005) investigated the ways that other White professors within the studied teacher education program addressed or did not address race in their courses. To do so, Gordon (2005) created and dispersed a Diversity Inventory survey to the other professors in the teacher education program how race, class, and gender topics were discussed in class.

Results indicated only one out of seven professors specifically named race as an issue of diversity on the survey. While all faculty members, the vast majority of whom were White, claimed to incorporate a significant amount of diversity content in their courses, none included content relating to race. Gordon (2005) acknowledged a lack of clear definition of diversity

within the program created a significant issue in the ability and willingness of White professors to incorporate conversations focused on race in their diversity-focused courses.

Through the results from Gordon's (2005) Diversity Inventory and the researchers' own critical reflections, Gordon (2005) postulated that race-focused conversations were avoided because other areas of diversity, such as LGBTQ, language diversity, ableism, or gender issues were safer and more comfortable. Gordon (2005) also noted that even though diversity was a key component of the teacher education program goals, the professors discussed diversity during only one faculty meeting, and this discussion centered on whether or not to include a discussion of the definition of diversity to their agenda.

As Gordon (2005) illustrated, the maintenance and ignorance of White normativity is not singular to White preservice teachers. Galman et al. (2010) explored how 11 professors experienced and engaged in discussions about race with their students. Specifically, the researchers used an autoethnography study to investigate how race was discussed in diversity-focused courses. Data were collected from two focus group sessions with five students and two alumni of the teacher education program as well as from self-study reflection documents from the three White researchers who taught within the program. Researchers utilized a grounded theory approach, and the analysis of the self-study data was regulated through themes that emerged from the focus group data. While researchers intended to have racially homogenous focus groups due to the potential of fear and reservation in racially heterogeneous groups, no White students volunteered to participate in the study. Researchers' self-study data were transcribed from correspondence such as emails, conversations, or notes as well as course syllabi and reflective autobiographies. Through open and axial coding, the researchers identified themes

through focus group transcript data and then connected identified themes to content from the researcher-generated documents.

Galman et al. (2010) found that they, as White professors, (a) allowed White preservice teachers to disengage from race-focused conversations, (b) interrupted race-focused conversations, and (c) did not take opportunities to discuss or comment on real-time racism in class. Through self-reflection and documentation, researchers discovered they enacted and maintained Whiteness in their diversity-focused courses. Galman et al. (2010) postulated that Whiteness was enacted and maintained partially due to the assumption that White students were not mature enough to discuss race or racial identity, and because the professors themselves avoided race and racial identity conversations in class. The researchers also theorized there were not effective strategies or knowledge about how to discuss race explicitly.

Pedagogical Strategies for Engaging Conversations Focused on Race

In previous literature, strategies for engaging in conversation about race were reported to be crucial for professors. Different pedagogical strategies such as games (Warren, 2011), documentary discussion (Durham-Barnes, 2015), and self-reflection and autobiographies (Whiting & Cutri, 2015) have been used to engage White students in discussions about race. Pimentel's (2010) diversity-focused course utilized critical discourse analysis (CDA) to involve students in analyzing the social construction and continuation of White racial supremacy and White normativity. Students in the course discussed the ways race and the social construction of people of color were reified in texts and media. At the end of the course, students wrote a paper and used CDA to present an evaluation of racial framework binaries in films that portrayed students of color who overcame adversities and life difficulties. Films such as *Freedom Writers* (DeVito, Shamberg, & Sher, 2007) or *Stand and Deliver* (Musca, 1988) were analyzed to show

how students of color were portrayed in striking contrast to White middle-class standards of dress, speech, education, and family. Pimentel (2010) analyzed data from two preservice teachers' participant-generated documents wherein participants articulated how the analyzed movie created and maintained racialized frameworks that subtly reified the good/bad binary of race. Binaries that were identified and discussed included Whites as successful, hardworking, peaceful, and clean, while students of color, their families, and communities were framed as apathetic, antagonistic, violent, chaotic, and dirty.

Both of the submitted participant-generated documents in Pimentel's (2010) study defined and discussed the framing of race in binary terms and discussed the implications of how racialized binaries in the movies validated and perpetuated stereotypes. Participants identified and analyzed the subtle cues that presented the White characters as the moral, academic, and cultural standards of success while the students of color lived in and contributed to chaos and violence and lacked educational values and motivation. Pimentel (2010) reported that while White students resisted talking about race in other courses she taught, the White preservice teachers in this particular course were critically engaged in analyzing how discursive racism was produced and then reproduced. Rather than using personal connections to racism, Pimentel's (2010) pedagogic strategy focused on the structural, stereotypic, and visible framework of inequities between White students and students of color in movies. The visible and impersonal frameworks of racial binaries allowed White preservice teachers to critically reflect on the subtle framework of stereotypes with less resistance than the professor experienced in other courses.

While Pimentel (2010) used strategies that veered conversations about race away from the personal and toward the structural, Gayles et al. (2015) engaged students in direct discussions to initiate racial reflection in White preservice teachers. Gayles et al. (2015) used qualitative

interpretive study to explore the ways in which professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs engaged White students in conversations about race. Gayles et al., (2015) used the Privileged Identity Exploration (PIE) model, which focuses on recognizing, reflecting, and addressing social privilege. An aspect of PIE includes allowing dissonance, fear, and anxiety as a way to introduce and encourage critical self and societal reflection with race issues. Gayles et al. (2015) used snowball sampling, and the study included 11 faculty members who taught diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs. Data were collected from pre-study surveys, interview transcripts, and a document analysis of each professor's most recent syllabus. Gayles et al. (2015) focused on data collected from interview transcripts, created codes using open and axial coding, and then identified themes as a collective research group.

Gayles et al. (2015) reported that participants found democratic and student-centered conversation processes most effective in engaging White students in discussions focused on race. By engaging in democratic and student-centered discussion, professors felt they were able to foster a learning environment where students and faculty created knowledge and meaning together while engaging with each other directly. Professors of diversity-focused courses experienced the difficulty of White preservice teachers' dissonance in confronting new information and experiences with their White identity. Findings illustrated that each faculty member's experience engaging White preservice teachers in discussions focused on race depended on that specific professor's social identity. Professors' experiences with White students were largely dependent upon the intersectionality of their obvious social identities. White professors, for example, experienced less hostility and discomfort in engaging conversations around race and privilege, whereas professors of color, especially female professors of color, experienced significantly more resistance and hostility.

Review of Methodological Issues

While some of the literature reviewed included quantitative and mixed-method studies, the majority of research methods reviewed in the literature were qualitative studies. Mixed-methods methodology was used to explore subjective concepts such as beliefs or experiences. However, mixed-methods is research more appropriately used when collecting quantitative data from a breadth of participants in order to make generalizations while also choosing a few participants to extend qualitative explanations and clarifications (Creswell, 2012). Rather than seeking to generalize the experience of a large group of individuals, this study undertook the investigation of specific individuals' subjective experiences. Thus, mixed-methods, although able to explore subjective and personal experiences, were not methodologically ideal to explore how White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race.

A significant portion of studies exploring White professors of diversity-focused courses and White preservice teachers discussing race utilized case study design. Case studies were utilized in Crowley and Smith's (2015) exploration of White preservice social studies teachers' experiences discussing race, and in both Galman et al. (2010) and Gayles et al. (2015) exploration professors' experiences. Yin (2018) suggested using case study as a research design if the research question asks "how" or "why," if there is no participation of influence over behaviors or events, and if the focus is on a bound group of people. Therefore, based on the methodologies and designs reviewed in previous related literature, this researcher determined that a qualitative single case study with a conceptual framework integrating social constructionism, CRT, and CWS was appropriate to explore how professors of diversity courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race.

Several studies utilized data triangulation, which added to the credibility, and consequently the strength, of the studies. Crowley and Smith (2015), Durham-Barnes (2015), and Pollock et al.'s (2010) studies utilized various data collection methods, which increased data sources from which to code and develop themes. Crowley and Smith (2015) collected data through observations, multiple participant-generated reflections and artifacts, and two 90-minute seminars. Pollock et al. (2010) collected data through observations and journal reflections. Durham-Barnes (2015) collected data through focus group sessions as well as entrance and exit surveys. Gayles et al. (2015) also used multiple data collection methods, such as pre-study surveys and document analysis. The triangulation utilized by these researchers strengthened the studies. However, unlike Crowley and Smith (2015), Durham-Barnes (2015), Pollock et al. (2010), and Gayles et al. (2015), Dunn et al. (2014) did not include triangulation of data and did not clearly discuss where data came from.

The identification of the role and responsibilities of researchers is an important clarification in research, especially in qualitative research (Yin, 2018). In Pollock et al.'s (2010) study, the researchers' roles as both researchers and professors of the diversity-focused course as well as their identified race was identified. Crowley and Smith (2015) explained the responsibilities of each researcher, but did not explain whether the researchers were professors of the student-participants or outsiders to the course. Thus, Crowley and Smith's (2015) research study would have been strengthened if the roles of the researchers in relation to the study's participants were defined. Conversely, Gordon (2005), clearly defined the researchers' role both in the study and in the teacher education program where the study was conducted.

Explanation of data analysis is a key aspect in the strength of a study. Pollock et al. (2010), Crowley and Smith (2015), and Durham-Barnes (2015) detailed data analysis approaches

and procedures, which strengthened the studies. Pollock et al. (2010) specifically showed strength in analysis by being aware of the disparity of the depth of data collected between class discussions and journal entries. Because the journal reflections showed more critical thinking and critical reflection, Pollock et al. (2010) chose to primarily analyze the data from the journals with supplemental analysis from course discussions. Gayles et al. (2015) analyzed data in several rounds using both open and axial coding in order for the research team to agree on the emerging themes. Gayles et al. (2015) also mentioned keeping an audit trail, which is an important aspect of maintaining credibility in research (Merriam, 2017). By contrast, Dunn et al.'s (2014) study gave no rationale or description of chosen analysis and was presented more as anecdotal analysis rather than rigorous qualitative research. Dunn et al.'s (2014) research, while corroborated by other scholars such as Picower (2009) and DiAngelo (2012), was not, in and of itself, a strong study. Whilst Gordon's (2005) study was stronger than Dunn et al.'s (2014) because it explained data collection techniques and the rationale for the study, it also lacked the description of and rationale for analysis. Unlike Dunn et al. (2014), however, Gordon's (2005) work has been cited in many ensuing research studies regarding Whiteness and teacher education. So, although Gordon's (2005) study could have been strengthened, it is an important part of the research body of Whiteness in teacher education.

Synthesis of Research Findings

White Preservice Teachers Engaging in Conversations Focused on Race

White preservice teachers' resistance and avoidance during conversations about race in diversity-focused courses was a common theme in the literature reviewed. Picower (2009), Durham-Barnes (2015), and Crowley and Smith (2015) all reported White preservice teachers using their own personal identities and experiences to understand and then avoid and resist

discussions about race. White preservice teachers' resistance to content and conversations related to race included claims of victimization (DiAngelo, 2011; Picower, 2009), minimization and invalidation (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Whiting & Cutri, 2015), and colorblindness (Choi, 2008; Picower, 2009). Picower (2009) observed that participants' experiences were informed by and then reified stereotypical views of people of color as dangerous and criminals. Similarly, both Picower (2009) and Crowley and Smith (2015) reported White preservice teachers justifying stereotypes as a form of self-protection. Stereotypes were considered a way to understand a situation based on appearance.

Often, even when White preservice teachers were willing to participate in conversations and critical reflection about race, they expressed feelings of helplessness in regard to institutional racism (Durham-Barnes, 2015; Picower, 2009; Pollock et al., 2010). The ability for White preservice teachers to see and utilize concrete strategies by which to engage in antiracist teaching was hindered by feelings of powerlessness in a structurally racist system (Durham-Barnes, 2015; Pollock et al., 2010). Encouraging and challenging White preservice teachers to see racism not only as structural but also as impactful to themselves and in their classrooms was a challenge in teacher education programs (Durham-Barnes, 2015; Pollock et al., 2010).

Abstract concepts connected to issues related to race, such as White privilege or structural racism, were difficult aspects of conversations focused on race for White preservice teachers and were often resisted or avoided (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Durham-Barnes, 2015; Picower, 2009). The belief in a singular universal experience has been shown to lead White preservice teachers to struggle with or deny the concept of White privilege (Durham-Barnes, 2015; Picower, 2009; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). The inability for White preservice teachers to see themselves conceptually and experientially as having a racial identity hindered both their ability

to engage in conversations about race and their ability to see the importance of discussing race (DiAngelo, 2011; Picower, 2009). The inability, then, to engage in critical and productive conversations about race maintained and reified White normativity and hegemony both in teacher education programs and in the educational system (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Segall & Garrett, 2013).

Experiences of Professors of Diversity-Focused Courses

Professors experienced feeling challenged by teaching diversity-focused courses. Professors of diversity-focused courses in both Gayles et al. (2015) and Gorski's (2012) studies described spending more time and energy teaching diversity-focused courses than any other course. The amount of time and energy spent preparing for diversity-focused courses could stem from feeling unprepared, ill-equipped to teach the course, or unsure of what to include in course content (Gorski, 2012; Gorski, 2016). Many professors experienced lacking time and strategies in engaging White students in conversations focused on race (Gayles et al., 2015; Gorski, 2012; Gorski, 2016). Gayles et al. (2015) and Shim (2018) reported the difficulty participants experienced in trying to balance interacting with White students' cognitive dissonance and resistance without pushing them too far too quickly (Gayles et al., 2015; Gorski, 2012).

Both White professors and professors of color experienced difficulty in engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race. Professors of color experienced increased hostility from White preservice teachers both in the classroom and on course evaluations (Atwater et al., 2013; Shim, 2018). White professors, while retaining the privilege of more respect and less hostility from White preservice teachers, experienced their own personal dissonance when encountering student resistance. Galman et al. (2010) and Gordon (2005) reported the difficulty White professors of diversity-focused courses had when trying to interrupt Whiteness in the

classroom. Both Galman et al. (2010) and Gordon (2005) reported White professors, both consciously and subconsciously, allowed White preservice teachers to be silent during conversations about race and neglected to hold space for students of color. White racial supremacy and double consciousness were reported to be so internalized that both White professors and professors of color teaching diversity courses felt conflicted between disrupting White normativity and remaining silent while teaching content related to race (Dubois, 1903; Galman et al., 2010; Gordon, 2005; Shim, 2018). As a result of the resistance and hostility experienced from White preservice teachers, professors of diversity-focused courses experienced isolation and desired to have community with other multicultural and diversity professors who understood, encouraged, and challenged them (Galman et al., 2010; Gayles et al., 2015; Gorski, 2016).

Pedagogical Strategies for Engaging in Conversations Focused on Race

Gorski (2016) described participants lamenting a lack of strategic pedagogical practices for discussing race with White students, while Gayles et al. (2015) found stimulating reflection or conversation through games was successful. Professors of diversity-focused courses felt White students relied on them too much during discussions and used that as an avenue to disengage from challenging conversations. Many of Gayles et al.'s (2015) participants implemented a democratic process to engage White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race and to share learning experiences between themselves and students. They also turned questions back to the class and encouraged students to participate by addressing each other directly.

Researchers such as Gordon (2005) and Galman et al. (2010) asserted that racial identity awareness and reflection in faculty development is critical. Gorski (2016) advocated the

necessity of pedagogic strategies that draw students into both intellectual and experiential interactions with race. Gorksi (2016) reported one of the major difficulties for professors of diversity-focused education courses in teacher education programs is the lack of practical pedagogical strategies to engage White preservice teachers in discussions about race. Several studies conducted by professors indicate having practical strategies designed to reduce resistance in White preservice teachers increased student engagement and critical self-reflection (Pimentel, 2010; Galman et al., 2010).

Critique of Previous Research

There are several key aspects of conducting and presenting a research study that offers both strength and credibility in regard to the claims and evidence presented. A researcher must be able to offer evidence and findings in order to make claims. The decisions a researcher makes about what and how to present findings and discussions that support claims can give clarity and strength or confusion and weakness to the study (Ravitch & Riggan, 2017). A strong research study presents clear justification for specific decisions made, offers clear and articulate evidence and discussion of findings, and connects findings back to previous research and to practical implications in the discussion (Boswell & Cannon, 2014).

Dunn et al. (2014) made claims that indicated both resistance and hostility in White preservice teachers during conversations focused on race. However, the research study lacked substantial data collection and analysis. Whether there was no data collection process or the data collection process was not discussed, the missing data and findings presentation seemed to leave the researchers' claims up to the reflections and memories. Because there was no clear literature review, explanation of the rationale for methodology or conceptual framework, or explanation of data collection or findings to support claims, Dunn et al.'s (2014) comments appeared biased and

anecdotal. Additionally, the section of the study discussing White preservice teachers' responses to race issues was taken from a singular account, which occurred nearly six years before the research article was published. Therefore, while the claims Dunn et al. (2014) made might be true and corroborated by other studies, the lack of evidence made claims seem like a mixture of a professor's frustration and a presentation of previous literature.

Similarly, while Gordon (2005) presented a clear discussion about the findings of the survey, the findings themselves were not presented. Because Gordon (2005) did not offer a presentation of the findings from the survey instrument, the discussion of findings was limited to the researchers' analysis of the response to the survey, rather than the survey responses themselves. Had the findings been reported and discussed, they could have been used to support the researchers' claims rather than the use of the claims to support the findings. Similar to Dunn et al. (2014), despite being stronger and more precise, Gordon's (2005) research article still seemed more anecdotal than rigorous qualitative research. By contrast, Pimentel (2010), supported claims by presenting a discussion of the findings as well as including both of the participant-generated documents that were analyzed for the study. In addition, the claims Pimentel (2010) made in the literature review of the study were reinforced and corroborated by the data that was both analyzed and displayed.

Galman et al. (2010) made claims that were supported by both methods of data collection in the study. Additionally, Galman et al. (2010) noted the key limitation of the researcher team being comprised of all White women with their own implicit biases and manifestations of White racial identity. Rather than the researchers looking for their own claims in their research question, data were taken from the focus groups and used to generate themes which established patterns and analysis for the researchers' own reflective data. The comparison Galman et al.

(2010) drew between participant-data and researcher-data offered multidimensional aspects and insights into the claims and established a solid foundation of evidence.

Durham-Barnes (2015) set a strong foundation of understanding for the claims, findings, and discussion in her study by offering a clear description of the terminology used in the study and a clear rationale for the choice of documentary film used. However, while Durham-Barnes (2015) offered strong evidence to support claims, the presentation of the findings seemed disorganized and confusing. It is this researcher's opinion that a presentation of findings according to each focus group and the correlating entrance and exit surveys to those students in each group, either in table or discussion form, would have offered a stronger presentation and justification of evidence to support claims. Durham-Barnes (2015) utilized strong data analysis in comparing each focus groups' codes and emerging themes with other individual focus groups and then with all groups collectively, although it would have strengthened the study to offer this data to the reader.

Picower (2009) offered general themes emerging from the findings but did not explain the findings in detail, and several theme presentations contained no connection to or discussion of specific findings from specific participants. While the rest of Picower's (2009) study was strong and claims were supported in most of the finding discussions, the study would have been strengthened if all of the theme presentations offered examples of findings from participants. By contrast, both Gayles et al. (2015) and Crowley and Smith (2015) clearly supported claims with evidence by presenting multiple participant quotations and finding summarizations for each theme presented.

Chapter 2 Summary

Because the number of racially diverse learners and their families is increasing, White preservice teachers must have competency and awareness in working with those racially diverse students and their families. Previous research reporting White preservice teachers' lack of racially diverse experiences and interactions and the maintenance of stereotypic and deficit thinking call for continued exploration into how White preservice teachers can be prepared to critically engage with their racially diverse students and families (Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Segall & Garrett, 2013; Vaught & Castagno, 2008). Because diversity-focused courses containing race-related content are currently the strategy most teacher education programs utilize in introducing White preservice teachers to information about and interactions with racial diversity, exploring the experiences of those responsible for teaching those courses is invaluable (DiAngelo, 2012; 2014; Picower, 2009; Sleeter, 2016).

Thus, this researcher built on the research reviewed related to how White professors of diversity-focused courses experience and engage White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Based on the reviewed literature, there was sufficient justification that the exploration of the experiences and strategies of White professors of diversity-focused courses in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race would enhance and add to the literature and provide valuable practical implications. The implications include the possibility for discussion about practical strategies for White professors of diversity-focused courses to engage White preservice teachers in discussions about race. Additionally, this research study offers implications for personal and professional development to increase White professors' racial identity awareness and racial literacy. The following chapter will discuss the

method and design of this study as well as the procedures for participant recruitment, data collection, and data analysis.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Previous research has explored the need for diversity courses in higher education, yet much of that research has focused on either the impact of diversity courses, or on students' experiences in and responses to them. There is, however, limited scholarship on the experiences of professors of diversity courses (Atwater et al., 2013). Basbay (2014) asserted that because diversity-focused educators interact significantly with students and curriculum in regard to diversity content, they should have the ability to create and evaluate the outcomes of diversity education and of diversity educational policies. If educators are to evaluate and implement diversity-focused education and educational policy effectively, their experiences are a key aspect to evaluating and improving how to engage in discussions about race in diversity-focused courses within teacher education programs. The experiences and engagement of professors of diversity-focused courses in conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers are unique from other professors. Gorski (2016) claimed professors of diversity-focused courses were unique in their experiences because of the reported hostility from both students and colleagues as well as emotional and time requirements of teaching a diversity-focused course. Research has reported White in-service teachers' resistance to discussing race and race issues contributed to their lack of preparedness to teach and engage racially diverse learners and their families (Galman et al., 2010; Picower, 2009).

This study focused on how White professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs experienced and engaged in conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers. This research study is significant because it offers implications in pedagogical strategies for discussing race with White preservice teachers, professional and institutional development in racial identity awareness and literacy, and ways in which White

professors of diversity-focused courses may be supported. Previous research reported White professors of diversity-focused courses experiencing hostility and resistance in engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race from White preservice teachers and from their own lack of racial identity awareness (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Galman et al., 2010; Gordon, 2005; Picower 2009). The exploration of White professor's experience and engagement in conversations about race with White preservice teachers, in combination with the previous literature reviewed in Chapter 2, had implications in the specific contexts within the overall case of White professors who teach diversity-focused courses (Gorski, 2016; Nelson & Guerra, 2014).

This chapter details the methodology used to explore how White professors experienced and engaged in conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers in teacher education programs. Specifically, Chapter 3 provides a detailed description of how the study was designed and conducted. The choice of methodology was specifically connected to and framed by the research question and subquestions. The design and methods of this research study relied heavily on the theory of socially constructed meaning and experiences as well as the inherency of racism in society. The design and methods of this study, target population, sampling methods, data collection instrumentation, and data analysis procedures were chosen specifically for their strength in previous literature regarding qualitative case study research in discussions about race in diversity-focused classes in teacher education programs and White identity studies (Durham-Barnes, 2015; Gorski, 2016; Picower, 2009). After discussion of the research limitations, credibility, and consistency, this chapter will include a discussion of the ethical issues in this study, a final summary of the research design and methodology, and Appendixes containing documentation and instrumentation.

Research Question

Focusing on White professors who teach diversity-focused courses, this research study explored their experiences and engagement in conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers in teacher education programs. Previous literature on discussions about race in diversity-focused education as well as White identity research has focused on the need for more critical race dialogue, training, and strategies in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations regarding race and racism (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Gayles et al., 2015; Gordon, 2005; Gorski, 2016). There is, however, limited research on the experiences of those educators teaching diversity courses. This study, therefore, adds detailed and nuanced understanding of how White professors who taught diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in discussions about race. The study focused on the follow research question:

1. How do White professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs engage in and experience conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers?

The specific subquestions explored were:

- a. How do White professors of diversity-focused courses experience the process of engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?
- b. What are the strategies utilized in conversations focused on race in diversity-focused courses, and how effective are they perceived to be by White professors of the diversity-focused courses in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?

Purpose and Design of the Study

Purpose of Study

Previous literature has shown the need for diversity-focused education in teacher education programs as a result of the diversification of the United States and systemic White identity and normativity (Atwater, 1996; DiAngelo, 2011; Gorski, 2016; Sleeter, 2016). Because of the racial unawareness of White preservice teachers and the racial diversity in professional and educational settings, it is important that diversity-focused education, especially race content and discussions, be evaluated to encourage critical racial awareness and literacy (Choi, 2008; DiAngelo, 2011; Gorski, 2016; Sleeter, 2016). Research studies have shown that the growing diversity in schools and the lack of racial awareness and literacy has led to difficulty in White preservice teachers engaging in, understanding, and effectively teaching racially diverse learners (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Galman et al., 2010).

One of The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education's (NCATE) six core standards for teacher candidates is diversity (NCATE, 2008). The NCATE (2008) expects teacher candidates to have content experience in diversity as well as a practical and culturally relevant pedagogy to engage and interact with issues of diversity. Aside from the racial diversification in the United States, the need for this standard applies to the educational workforce itself as the current educational workforce is overwhelmingly (83%) White (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). Because of the racial diversity in the United States, the increasing diversity in the professional workforce, and the fact that the majority of preservice teachers are White, diversity-focused courses in higher education must be critically explored in terms of racial diversity issues (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). Scholars have expressed the need for evaluation and improvement coming from the experiences of those

responsible for teaching diversity (Atwater et al., 2013; Basbay, 2014; Gorski, 2016).

Consequently, in order to add to the literature exploring diversity-focused education, this research study explored how White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race.

Design of Study

Qualitative research. The research method for this study was a qualitative approach to seek understanding (Stake, 1995). Qualitative research focuses on the social construction and unique experiences of individuals' reality and underscores the plurality of those realities and experiences (Baxter & Jack, 2008). A key aspect of qualitative research embraced by this study was the requirement of both researcher and participant interpretation of experiential meaning (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Stake, 1995). Unlike quantitative research, which strives for generalizations, the qualitative design of this research allowed a focus on reporting thick and rich description of participants' experiences through the social constructionism theory, CRT, and CWS. Through the analysis of codes and themes found and analyzed in each particular case, the researcher sought to recognize and respect the plurality of differences between unique participants (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2018).

Because experiences exist within a specific historical and social context, this study qualitatively explored the experiences of participants as White professors who teach diversity-focused courses (Atwater, 1996). The binding of this case to White professors was done for several reasons. Previous research has shown that professors of color experienced more hostility and resistance than White professors and, as a result, were less likely to feel safe sharing experiences honestly (Atwater et al. 2013). Because the researcher of this study identifies as White, and in addition to the probability of the difficulty in recruiting professors of color due to

this hostility, this research focused specifically on the experience of White professors of diversity-focused courses. Through the interpretation of the socially constructed themes of White professors of diversity-focused courses and the thick descriptions from each participant's analyses and experiences, this research study added complexity to the understanding and nuance of conversations about race in teacher education programs through social constructionism, CRT, and CWS. Complexity and nuance were accomplished through embracing and conceptualizing the uniqueness of each participant's experience. Cautious validations of social constructionism, CRT, and CWS were sought in the contextualization of participants and their experiences and engaged a multi-dimensional treatment of individual participants. As qualitative research gives both the researcher and the reader a clearer understanding of a specific phenomenon (Stake, 1995), this study sought to present a clearer understanding of the experiences of higher education faculty members who teach diversity-focused courses.

Case studies. As a form of qualitative research, case studies are used when there is a specific phenomenon that might be manifested in individual and unique cases (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2018). Case studies are utilized when research questions focus on how or why a phenomenon exists or is manifested (Yin, 2018). Case study research is a strong research method because it allows the researcher to explore a phenomenon within its naturally occurring context and based in the plural realities of the participants within that context (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

Because this study was a qualitative study, which explored the experiences of specific people in a specific context, there were several different options for a research methodology. Phenomenology, to a much lesser degree than case study, was also utilized as a research method in previous literature exploring the experiences of White preservice teachers and faculty members while discussing issues related to race. Phenomenology specifically focuses on the

experiences and perspectives of participants, and is useful when questioning or challenging presuppositions (Lester, 1999). Essentially, phenomenological studies explores phenomena that are subjectively experienced, and seeks to describe subjective experiences and perspectives (Lester, 1999; Qutoshi, 2018). Because this study sought to explore the experiences of participants within a very specific situation rather than trying to understand the general perspective or presuppositions of the participants, case study design is a more appropriate for this study than phenomenology. The specific context of the participants, which is more prominent in case study research than in phenomenological study (Qutoshi, 2018), is a key aspect of this study and the pursuit of answers to the research question.

Therefore, the research design for the study was a case study. The researcher understood that this was a specific, bounded case, which followed the understanding and acceptance of plural realities. Case studies focus on the complexities of specific individuals and their contexts within the boundary of the specific case explored (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2018). The population of this case were White professors who taught at least one diversity-focused course in a teacher education program. Within the single-case of White professors of diversity courses, a sample of eight participants were studied to explore their experiences and engagement with White preservice teachers in conversations about race.

Research Population and Sampling Method

Merriam (2017) suggested case study research is composed of two different levels of sampling. The first level is the overall and bounded case, and the second level is the specific participants within the case. Typical sampling is the sampling method used wherein participants are chosen because they are reflective of the average person within the case; in this case the typical sample was White faculty members who taught diversity-focused courses in teacher

education programs (Merriam, 2017). The participants were purposefully selected from different predominantly White private liberal arts colleges and universities enrolling fewer than 6,000 undergraduate students, located in the Northeastern region of the United States. Further binding of the case narrowed participants who taught at least one diversity-focused course within a teacher education program. This research study was bound by race, but not gender, tenure, or expertise.

Because this research study did not require institutional facilities, approval from the Institutional Review Boards (IRBs) of the universities for which the participants work was not necessary. To locate potential participants, the researcher explored the universities' websites, which typically provide faculty members' pictures, biographies, and professional interests. The researcher emailed all White professors in each education department who appeared to fit the binding of the study. The draft to potential participants is presented in Appendix A. The researcher sought to include up to 10 participants from different universities of generally similar size demographic make-up. The invitation to all White professors of diversity-focused courses and the resulting selection of participants was part of purposeful sampling and sought to increase the richness of the discussion within the case (Patton, 2002).

The initial email introduction and invitation to professors included a request for them to respond directly to the email giving their intention of joining the study or not within 14 days. Professors who agreed to participate in the study were emailed the Informed Consent, which was requested to be electronically signed and returned to the researcher within 10 days. The Informed Consent is presented in Appendix B. All further communication regarding the study was conducted through the email address provided both in the original participant recruitment email and on the Informed Consent. Participants were able to withdraw from the research study

at any time and for any reason, but any already collected data could not be redacted. It was requested that if a participant wanted to withdraw from the study, the researcher should be informed via email as soon as possible.

Instrumentation

This case study utilized pre-study surveys for general context and background of each participant such as age, educational background, length of time teaching and diversity-focused courses taught. Besides the general pre-study surveys, Yin (2018) suggested using multiple sources of evidence to provide more transferability and consistency. Using three different evidential sources as triangulation provides a way to identify and explore the interaction of data from different modes of inquiry (Yin, 2018). Three types of instrumentation were used as a means of triangulation: one participant-generated document in response to two researcher-generated prompts, a one-on-one semistructured interview, and an online asynchronous focus group.

Data Collection

Pre-Study Surveys

Yin (2018) asserted that surveys are not conducive for collecting rich or deep data in case study research because they more naturally answer “what” rather than “how” or “why” questions. However, surveys can be useful in collecting contextual data, which gives the researcher a broader and more holistic picture of participants included in the case (Merriam, 2017; Yin, 2018). Pre-study surveys were used in previously reviewed literature as a way to either acquire background information or attitudes and perceptions from participants prior to the study (Atwater et al., 2013; Galman et al., 2010; Settlage, 2011). The goal of the pre-study surveys in this research study was to more situationally and holistically place participants’

experiences in context. The information gathered from pre-study surveys were then used to ask general informative questions at the beginning of interviews. Participants were sent a unique and secure link to the survey, conducted through Qualtrics, and were asked to answer basic background questions about themselves. Participants were requested to complete the survey within five days. The Email Draft of Pre-Study Survey to Participants is presented in Appendix C.

Participant-Generated Documents

Merriam (2017) used the term “documents” as any form of concrete and physical material, which can either be created by the researcher or the participant. Documents and artifacts have an important place in case study research because they are a means for participants to tell specific stories in their own ways and in the privacy of their own writing (Glesne, 2016). Glesne (2016) explains there is a certain story which a document can embody while other data collection methodologies cannot. Utilizing documents in a qualitative research study is valuable for several reasons. In contrast to one-on-one interviews and focus groups, which are social contexts, participant-generated documents are private. The social contexts of one-on-one interviews and focus groups, while offering valuable data, provide additional pressure and external variables that invariably impact the data (Merriam, 2017). Documents, however, are private and allow the participant to choose what biographical experiences they wish to discuss in relation to the reflection prompt and are not influenced by the presence of the researcher or other participants (Merriam, 2017). Document study is a strong method of data collection because it gives participants the ability to communicate thoughts, feelings, and opinions the researcher might not otherwise be able to explore. Participant-generated documents are also valuable in qualitative case studies because they are primary sources. While the information offered by

participants is subjective, it is directly created by participants with fewer opportunities to be altered or misinterpreted in the ways that secondary sources can be (Merriam, 2017). Creswell (2012) suggested utilizing documents in qualitative research is beneficial because they are “in the language and words of the participants, who have usually given thoughtful attention to them” (p. 223).

Previous literature used document study in various case studies contributing to the literature on White identity, White normativity, and multicultural and diversity-focused education (Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Picower, 2009; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). Picower (2009) utilized documents by asking participants in a multicultural education course to document their experiences with race, and then analyzed the documents to explore the effect of experiences on understanding diversity. Similarly, Nelson and Guerra (2014) analyzed participant responses to scenarios showing clashes of culture in the classroom; document responses were then used to analyze levels of participant’s cultural awareness and deficit thinking. Whiting and Cutri (2016) asked participants to write reflection responses to a prompt regarding their ability to identify and own unearned White privilege. Finally, Crowley and Smith (2015) used written reflections to explore White preservice teachers’ experiences while discussing the relationship between Whiteness and education.

The document that was analyzed in this research study was participant-generated reflection responses to two researcher-generated prompts and were collected as the first piece of data. This document explored the participant’s response to the prompts:

1. What are one or two significant experiences that you have in engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue?

2. What are one or two strategies of engagement (either effective or ineffective) that you have tried or currently utilize in engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue? Please explain.

Participants were requested to return the completed prompt within 14 days of receiving it. The Email for Participant-Generated Reflection Prompt is presented in Appendix D.

While using documents as a data source in qualitative research, there are limitations with using them as well. Merriam (2017) suggested that personal, reflective documents are subjective because they are the personal stories of participants and as such must be carefully interpreted by the researcher. If needed, document subjectivity would have been considered and clarified by member-checking through email. Similarly, because document data collection took place prior to one-on-one interviews, the researcher had the ability to probe further into or clarify any document's intended meaning (Glesne, 2016).

One-On-One Interviews

One of the most common methods of instrumentation in qualitative case study research is interviews (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). One-on-one interviews are purposeful conversations between the researcher and the participant and have the intention of gaining perspective and experiences about a specific phenomenon or issue (Merriam, 2017; Yin, 2018). Interviews were used in much of the research literature to explore the experiences and opinions of teachers, students, and school leaders (Atwater et al., 2013; Basbay, 2014; Gorski, 2016; Jimenez et al., 2014). One-on-one interviews were powerful sources of data, which allowed the researcher to hear and collect data first-hand from participants, while simultaneously clarifying meaning or probing discussions further (Merriam, 2017). This research study utilized a semistructured interview style because it facilitated organization and intentionality for the researcher to ask the

same questions to different participants while simultaneously having flexibility in allowing participants to explore experiences and strategies significant to them (Merriam, 2017).

In this research study, the purpose of one-on-one interviews was to explore the different experiences and engaging strategies that White faculty members had in discussing race with White preservice teachers. Because social construction was a significant part of this study's conceptual framework, interviews were important to allow participants to explain the contact with students that helped to shape or construct their experiences as a diversity-focused educator. The social construction theory maintains issues, phenomena, and experiences do not occur in isolation, but are experienced and interpreted in collective or communal situations or interactions such as interviews (Kim, 2001). Thus, interviews allowed the researcher to understand and explore those relativistic and plural perspectives by using each individual participant's exact words, while at the same time probing and extending meaning (Yin, 2018).

Jimenez et al. (2014) utilized one-on-one interviews with teachers' and leaders' in South Texas to discuss their perceptions and experiences with multicultural education. Similarly, Picower (2009) used one-on-one interviews to collect data from White preservice teachers who were enrolled in a multicultural education course and finishing their degrees in childhood education. Picower (2009) interviewed each participant individually, then analyzed, coded, and discussed the common thematic discussions from each interview. Yoon (2012a) used one-on-one interviews to explore how White in-service teachers' White identity impacted their ability to engage in and learn from diversity in-service training. In the previous literature, interviewing was shown to be a valuable part of case study research because it explored a social phenomenon directly through the experiences and first-hand discussions of the insiders of that phenomenon (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2018).

The researcher and each participant agreed upon the length of the interview prior to the meeting, with each interview lasting between 75 and 90 minutes; the agreed upon time was respected by the researcher (Merriam, 2017). There was one interview with each of the study's participants, and the interview was the second method of data collection. The interviews were semistructured with a set number of questions created before the beginning of the study but were flexible to allow the researcher to add or expound on questions or experiences based on other data collected. There were five general groupings of questions, with no specific order, each of which had follow-up and clarifying questions. The interview questions were piloted by two educators who have taught diversity-focused courses but who were not participating in this research study. The semistructured one-on-one interview questions are presented in Appendix F. The expectation that the interview data would be audio-recorded was communicated through both the initial invitation email to potential participants and the Informed Consent. After the completion of an interview, data were manually transcribed by the researcher to provide deep and intentional contact and interaction with the data (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). The researcher used two audio-recording devices in case one method failed and took notes during the interview in case both methods failed. All interviews were successfully audio-recorded.

Online Asynchronous Online Focus Group

The final data collection method in this research study was an online asynchronous focus group. The purpose of focus groups was to explore participants' experiences and opinions, and to allow participants to speak in a social setting about the specific issue or phenomenon being studied (McDaniel & Gates, 2002). Combining or connecting focus groups with one-on-one interviews is strategic because one-on-one interviews include the singular experiences and opinions of interviewed participants, but focus groups include multiple participants' experiences

and opinions in interact with each other (Glesne, 2016). Focus groups give the researcher the opportunity to explore and better understand issues discussed by participants within the social interaction of others who also have experiences and opinions about the same issue (McDaniel & Gates, 2002). Focus groups were particularly important as a data collection method in this study because they allowed participants to express their own experiences and pedagogical strategies with others in a similar position. According to Merriam (2017), focus groups offer a rich means of data collection because they contain situational and conversational contexts from which the researcher can record and interpret.

In utilizing online focus groups for this study, the researcher identified five key concerns or disadvantages of using online focus groups as a data collection method. The first disadvantage was the potential for a lack of facilitation of or unobserved group interaction (McDaniel & Gates, 2002). Second, non-verbal cues could potentially be more difficult to read and interpret in online rather than face-to-face focus groups (McDaniel & Gates, 2002). The third concern was security. In face-to-face focus groups, the researcher knows who is present and whether they should be present, but with online focus groups, it can be difficult to confirm the identity of each participant in the discussion (McDaniel & Gates, 2002). Fourth, McDaniel and Gates (2002) contended that utilizing online focus groups allows for the possibility of more disruptions and inattention to the topic than if utilizing face-to-face focus groups. Disruptions and inattention may lead to participants focusing on something other than the conversation. Finally, the role of the facilitator could be limited and complicated in online focus groups (McDaniel & Gates, 2002).

However, there are ways, with the continuing evolution of technology, to minimize concerns over or disadvantages of online focus groups. For example, because this study did not

explore the dynamic of the group in conversation, but rather the content of the conversation itself, the group dynamic and the non-verbal cues of the group were not of significant concern in this study. Additionally, the security of the online focus group was increased by restricting the forum to only those who had been provided with a private link to enter the group as well as being required to provide confirmation of identity before joining (McDaniel & Gates, 2002). Online focus groups offered the participants the security of continued confidentiality. In face-to-face focus groups, the participants meet each other, which provides no option for participants to remain truly confidential. The option to remain confidential from other participants was important in this study because several of the participants might have known each other through various academic communities. If participants knew each other or worked together, they might have been less involved in interaction and less willing to share honest experiences, opinion, or strategies during the focus group discussion. Therefore, the online focus group offered an additional layer of confidentiality to participants.

This research studied utilized an online asynchronous focus group rather than a face-to-face focus group. Asynchronous focus groups minimize scheduling issues and increase efficiency for participants in not having to travel to or from a face-to-face focus group meeting (Van Nuys, 1999). An asynchronous focus group does not necessitate participants and the researcher to all be present and interacting together at the same time; participants can log on and interact at their convenience. Asynchronous focus groups also allow participants time to critically think about and reflect on issues, questions, or statements before responding. The efficiency of online focus groups extends to the researcher in as the transcripts of the data are already created and organized in the forum without having to audio record and then transcribe (McDaniel & Gates, 2002).

The use of focus groups was employed by Durham-Barnes (2015), Glenn (2015), Galman et al. (2010), and Yoon (2012b). Within the previous literature, focus groups were an additional medium for researcher questions or comments to be reacted to and answered differently by participants in a facilitated and social context. Focus groups also enabled participants to have discussions and direct conversations with each other, allowing the researcher to observe and facilitate rather than lead. Based on the strengths and thick descriptions and rich data collected by previous literature regarding professors of diversity-focused courses and White preservice teachers, this research study utilized an online asynchronous focus group.

In this study, the focus group was the final form of data collection, and took place after participants met with the researcher for the one-on-one interview. The online asynchronous focus group was conducted through FocusGroupIt. FocusGroupIt is an online medium that provides a forum for focus groups to take place in complete confidentiality from the other participants in the group. FocusGroupIt requires the use of a unique link, which the researcher emails directly to the participants. FocusGroupIt also requires confirmation of identity for each participant to prove they are the invited participant, and each participant was asked to identify themselves using a pseudonym. Only the researcher was able to see the email address corresponding to each of the participants. Participants received an email explaining the protocol and expectations of the focus group as well as information about FocusGroupIt's privacy statement and directions for deleting their FocusGroupIt account. The email with directions for joining the FocusGroupIt asynchronous focus group is presented in Appendix G. Shortly after receiving the focus group directions, participants received a private link to the online focus group forum in FocusGroupIt. Once on the website, participants needed to register to use the site. However, only the participant's first and last name and email address were required for

registration. Participants were able to delete their registered account as soon as the focus group was completed and the researcher obtained the transcript of the discussions. FocusGroupIt allowed the facilitator of the focus group to download a PDF or Microsoft Word document of the online discussion.

It was communicated in the initial invitation email to potential participants, as well as in the Informed Consent, that participants were expected to interact in the focus group at least four times within a one-week period. Participants were required to respond to the question or prompt and then respond to another participant's response or question. There were no set dates or times for meetings, so participants were able to log in and interact in the focus group whenever and from wherever is most convenient for them. The first focus group thread explored the experiences of the participants in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race, and the second focus group thread explored the strategies that participants utilize to engage White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. The layout and question threads for the online asynchronous focus groups is presented in Appendix G.

Identification of Attributes

In qualitative research, identification of attributes is defining the specific attribute and then explaining at what measurement that attribute is constituted (Schneider, 2016). The importance of the identification of attributes is that it specifies measurements and is able to show the relativistic variables and attributes that appear in different cases (Lamphere, 2016). The identification of attributes is necessary because it ensures transferability and credibility through consistent measurements and labels as well as allowing the ability for the case study to be replicated by other researchers by using the same or similar operationalization (Lamphere, 2016). This research study used qualitative measurement through clear, rich, and thick description. The

attributes defined and measured in this case study were the specific experiences and engagement strategies White professors of diversity-focused courses had with White preservice teachers.

1. Experiences with White students during conversations focused on race—professors’ experiences with the process of engaging White students in conversations focused on race.
2. Pedagogical strategies for engaging White students in conversations focused on race—the specific ways White professors of diversity-focused courses plan to and carry out discussions about race with White preservice teachers.
3. Effectiveness of pedagogical strategies for engaging White students in conversations focused on race—whether the White professors of diversity-focused courses evaluate pedagogical strategies utilized or tried are effective or not and why.

Data Analysis Procedures

Stake (1995) described analysis as separating parts of data and then finding ways that those parts reconnect as the researcher puts it back together in meaningful ways. Yin (2018) said data collection is cyclical and that the lack of linear progression comes from continual backtracking through data. Because there were no clear expectations or predictions for occurrences from the data, the analysis techniques were not based on a theoretical proposition, but on closely examining the data until codes and subsequent themes emerge (Yin, 2018). Merriam (2017) suggested new researchers, or researchers who want to be heavily immersed in data analysis, should transcribe and analyze their own research. Transcription and hand-analysis creates a context of information for the researcher to interact with. One of Creswell’s (2012) six steps to qualitative data analysis is exploring the overall data before it is coded. Rather than waiting for data collection to be complete, each piece of data was collected and simultaneously

explored and analyzed (Creswell, 2012; Stake, 1995). The researcher chose to follow this advice, so as each piece of data was completed the researcher personally and manually transcribed the data and began looking for potential analytic pathways.

Saldaña (2016) suggested looking for patterns of repetition or of anomalies, specifically in relation to the attributes of the study. Patterns can suggest both unity and credibility in research and are useful in connecting current research to previous research and literature (Saldaña, 2016). Yin (2018) contended that this style of inductive strategy can help to illuminate analytic concepts and determine the researcher's movement through the data. All data were analyzed continuously throughout the research collection period; data were manually transcribed and hand-coded by the researcher. Before coding all data were read through at a minimum of four times to assure and engage in deep familiarity and to catch in later readings what might have been missed earlier. Coding was used to find emerging patterns and themes and was verified by preserving consistency of data through data collection and data source triangulation.

Creswell's (2012) second step in data analysis is to assign codes and create an overview of the data. The researcher utilized In Vivo coding as the primary coding type for the first cycle of coding. In Vivo coding is used when one of the main goals of the research is to allow the participants' words to be expressed verbatim (Saldaña, 2016). As data were read through initially, the researcher looked to find specific words or phrases which contain emphasis or were repeated throughout one or multiple data sources. Once a list of codes had been compiled for each data source, and after comparing individual parts of analysis to the whole of the data source, codes were organized by the category or theme that seems clearest to the researcher (Saldaña, 2016). The codes in this first cycle of coding were in participant quotations, which ensured the maintenance of participant-meaning as closely as possible.

Given that Saldaña (2016) warned using In Vivo coding as the solitary coding method for the entire research process may limit the interpretation of the data, Emotions coding and Values coding were utilized in addition to In Vivo coding. Emotions coding and Values coding were used in all three data collection methods: document analysis of participant-generated reflections, one-on-one interview transcripts, and online focus group transcripts, and then connected to the previously analyzed verbatim codes from In Vivo coding. Emotions coding uses codes to identify and analyze emotions that participants have, and Values coding identifies and explores participants' assumptions and beliefs, which form their unique perspectives (Saldaña, 2016). For this reason, Emotions coding and Values coding were applied to all forms of data collection to analyze the practical application of the emotions and values expressed and discussed by the participants.

The second cycle of coding utilized Pattern coding to pull major codes from the data and find ways in which data can be patterned to find meaning (Saldaña, 2016). Saldaña (2016) affirms Pattern coding as appropriate to use when there is a large amount of data from different data collection sources to develop the data to find and form larger aggregated themes. The data coded from the first cycle with In Vivo, Emotion, and Value codes were reviewed to look for commonalities or abnormalities. Categories developed from patterns were organized per data source and then compared to each other to look for potential themes which may cross data sources (Saldaña, 2016). The codes and their subsequently developed themes were charted as each data source was coded, reviewed, and recoded to look for deeper, new, and/or aggregated analytic meaning. The identified themes remained tentative throughout the analysis process until all data sources were recorded, transcribed, coded, and finally triangulated for transferability and consistency.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Research Design

This study had two limitations. The researcher recognized the limitation of being a White woman discussing sensitive diversity experiences with professors. The researcher also understood there was limitation in her identity as a White woman, and there would be specific researcher bias connected to White racialized identity (Choi, 2008; DiAngelo, 2011; Helms, 1995; Sleeter, 2016). The study was delimited to White professors who teach diversity-focused courses in a teacher education program. Further, this study was delimited to teacher education programs located in the Northeastern region of the United States that were housed in private predominantly White liberal arts colleges enrolling fewer than 6,000 undergraduate students.

Validation

Credibility

There were several strategies employed during the research process to promote and maintain internal validity, or credibility. The first strategy to maintain credibility is the researcher's personal handling of all stages of data collection, transcription, analysis, and reporting. By personally conducting all aspects of the research study, the researcher limited and minimized the potential skewing of interpretation and meaning. Merriam (2017) encouraged qualitative researchers to maintain as little space and as little interjection between the participant, the data, and the researcher. Triangulation of data was another strategy to assure credibility was established. This research study employed two types of triangulation: data collection methods and data collection sources.

Triangulation of data is the use of two or three different methods for collecting data (Merriam, 2017; Yin, 2018). This research study was triangulated with three types of data collection: participant-generated documents, one-on-one interviews, and an online focus group.

Triangulation of data helps maintain credibility and allow for the widest possible data net for analysis and meaning construction. The second type of triangulation, data collection sources, is achieved through using multiple sources from which the data are compiled (Merriam, 2017). Data were collected from eight different sources to maintain credibility of constructed codes and themes throughout the study. In order to achieve maximum variability, data were collected from sources from different universities (Merriam, 2017). Finally, member checking was employed during the research study to make sure participants' voices, experiences, emotions, values, and words were as clearly understood and accurately interpreted as possible (Merriam, 2017; Yin, 2018). Participants in this study were able to review interview transcripts immediately following transcription. Member-checking was a significant part of the research process because it worked to maintain the intentions and situational context of the participants in the case as closely as possible (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2018). Member-checking occurred immediately following transcription of the one-on-one interviews. Member-checked comments and corrections were charted and kept for the record (Merriam, 2017; Yin, 2018).

Dependability

Human behavior and experience are never the same, so reliability and consistency are difficult concepts in qualitative research (Merriam, 2017). One approach to manage consistency is the continual placement of data analysis within the context of the case. Consistency can also be managed by ensuring the presentation of the data is consistent with the data collection and analysis. In other words, the final conclusions of the researcher must be based on logical connection to the collected and analyzed data (Merriam, 2017). The triangulation of data, which is necessary to maintain credibility, can be used by maintaining consistency with the other data collected (Merriam, 2017). This research study utilized external audits in making sure researcher

bias, misinterpretation, or miscommunication was as limited as possible (Yin, 2018). In addition, all records of the research, including transcriptions, analytic memos, member checking comments, and correction charts were maintained throughout the research process.

In quantitative research, external validity is the ability to generalize results or findings (Merriam, 2017; Yin, 2108). It is understood, however, that qualitative research cannot and does not seek to generalize findings. Merriam (2017) asserted qualitative research is used to explore a specific case and the specific factors or issues within the case. This case study did not aim to make generalizations about all White professors of diversity-focused courses; it sought to explore the experiences of the specific White professors of diversity-focused courses who participated in the study. This researcher sought to explore the particular experiences and engagement strategies White professors who teach diversity-focused courses have with White preservice teachers in teacher education programs. Merriam (2017) asserted that transferability is the ability for readers to apply what was learned from the study in their own contexts and their own ways. Patton (2002) called these extrapolations “modest speculations on the likely applicability of findings to other situations under similar, but not identical conditions” (p. 584).

According to Merriam (2017), maximum variability is the use of multiple sites or locations of the study to allow for a larger potential for the application of the findings. This research case study engaged in maximum variation and thick description in order for readers to find the potential for transferability. Although this research study is a single-case study, the sampling of participants within the case was from multiple sites in order to increase maximum transferability.

Expected Findings

In this research, the researcher expected to find specific experiences and engagement strategies that White professors of diversity-focused courses had with White students in teacher education programs. The researcher also expected to find rich and thick description from participant-generated documents, one-on-one interviews, and online focus groups putting participants' experiences in context, confirming, and/or contrasting experiences. The researcher anticipated finding both positive and negative experiences of professors in engaging their White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Additionally, the researcher expected to find examples and explanations of effective and ineffective strategies of engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race.

Ethical Issues of the Study

Conflict of Interest Assessment

There was no conflict of interest in this research study. The researcher was not personally connected to the participants, the courses they taught, or the institutions where they taught. The researcher was not involved in any roles related to the case of the study, such as teaching, administering, or taking the course(s) included in the research study.

Researcher's Positionality

A primary ethical issue and limitation of any research study is the position of the researcher (Creswell, 2012). While the researcher had no involvement in the courses or assignments that were studied, the race of the researcher may have impacted the study. Previous research has reported that race is a sensitive and uncomfortable topic for White people to discuss (Atwater et al., 2013). Therefore, as all of the participants of this study are White, the researcher's own race may have impacted the study significantly less than if the participants

were faculty of color or if the researcher was a woman of color. However, even more significantly, the social construction of society in regard to race, the life experiences, and the implicit bias of the researcher were all aspects of the researcher's position. As such, these aspects of the researchers' positionality were constantly reviewed, analyzed, and reflected upon cyclically, both privately and with the research chair.

Ethical Issues in the Study

One of the major concerns in any research study with participants is how participants will be affected by the research or research process (Merriam, 2017; Neuman, 2014). This research study was designed in such a way as to reduce or minimize risk to any participant. A major concern in any social science study is confidentiality (Merriam, 2017; Neuman, 2014). Participants must be protected from any potential backlash or punishment, whether legal, professional, or personal that might come as a result of their participation (Merriam, 2017; Neuman, 2014). Creswell (2012) advised any documents related to participants should be kept in a place where they would not reasonably be exposed. Because this research topic is connected to the profession of the participants, a potential risk existed for participants to discuss or express negative opinions or information about students, schools, departments, or other instructors regarding their experiences discussing race in their diversity-focused courses.

The data from this research study, outside of transportation to and from data collection events, remained in the researcher's home possession in a locked file cabinet. Furthermore, participants were given pseudonyms, which never appeared in the same documentation as real names. Furthermore, risk of identification was limited because the study was limited to White professors, who make up the majority of professors. Additionally, there were multiple data collection sites, which limited the potential for any one participant to be identified or tied to any

one particular university (Creswell, 2012). All digital recordings were deleted immediately upon transcription of data, and data will be kept for three years after which all paper transcripts will be shredded. No data were stored in the iCloud, and all digital data were kept on an encrypted hard drive and locked in a filing cabinet in the researcher's personal home office.

Neuman (2014) asserted that all researchers have ethical and moral obligations not only to the credibility and consistency of a study, but to the participants of a study. Ethics is an important part of this researcher's design and preparation for the research study because many participants are not necessarily aware of their rights or vulnerability as participants (Neuman, 2014). For this reason, researchers must be aware of and intentional about ethical issues on participants' behalf. It follows then, that one of the important aspects of ethical research is the relationship between the researcher and the participant (Merriam, 2017). The participant makes specific decisions about what information to share based on what he or she understands the purpose of the research to be (Merriam, 2017). This research study guarded from deception and risk in two major ways.

A letter of Informed Consent was provided to potential participants prior to their decision to join the study (Neuman, 2014). The Informed Consent communicated the purpose of the study, the risks of the study, the researcher's commitment to confidentiality, the benefits of the study, and the participants' right to withdrawal and right to information. The Informed Consent form is presented in Appendix B. The Informed Consent specifically communicated that the participant had the right to confidentiality, which was be maintained in various ways. First, participants' official names did not appear on any data documents; pseudonyms were used. Secondly, all data were kept in the researcher's home office and all identifying documents were kept in a locked file cabinet in one room of the researcher's home, while all data documents

utilizing participants' pseudonyms were kept in a separate file cabinet in a different room. All digital data were kept on an encrypted hard drive and none of the data were stored in iCloud. No publication or report of the research identified participants, and all formal documents containing official names were locked away after completion and publication of the research. Thirdly, all data audio recordings were destroyed immediately upon completion of transcription and member-checking, and paper transcripts will be shredded after three years. The second form of protection against deceit was through member-checking and transcript release. The researcher released all interview transcripts relative to that particular participant for initial member-checking (Neuman, 2014). The researcher did not intend to use deception in the study and used these ethics checks as a way to keep accountability.

Chapter 3 Summary

This study utilized a qualitative method of research and a case study design because they provided opportunities for the research to be bound to the specific experiences of White professors of diversity-focused courses. This research study was significant because while much research has explored the experiences and perceptions of White students during conversations focused on race, less research has been dedicated to exploring the experiences of the faculty members who teach diversity-focused courses. The utilization of participant-generated documents, one-on-one interviews, and an online focus group allowed the researcher to document and analyze participants' experiences within a holistic context. The three data collection methods provided triangulation of data to ensure credibility and consistency within the study.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results

The purpose of this single case study was to explore how White professors of diversity-focused courses experience and engage White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. The motivation for this research study came from the researcher's own personal experience, or lack thereof, with diversity-focused education. Throughout the entirety of the researcher's educational career, no diversity-focused course was ever required or offered. Specifically, no course with content that addressed diversity issues such as race or the need to be aware of and reflect on positionality as a White female teacher was part of the curriculum. There were no courses that focused on the pedagogical or practical implications of teaching racially diverse students. Now, however, as a professor who teaches courses both with racially diverse students and courses that focus on diversity, this researcher had both personal and professional interest and investment in the topic of this research study.

While there is significant research on White preservice teachers and White teachers, this researcher wanted to explore the experiences of those responsible for educating preservice teachers. Therefore, the researcher chose to conduct a qualitative single case study in order to explore the following research question:

1. How do White professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs engage in and experience conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers?

The specific subquestions explored were:

- a. How do White professors of diversity-focused courses experience the process of engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?

- b. What are the strategies utilized in conversations focused on race in diversity-focused courses, and how effective are they perceived to be by White professors of the diversity-focused courses in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?

Throughout the process of this research study, the researcher collected reflection responses, conducted one-on-one interviews, and facilitated an online asynchronous focus group with eight White professors who teach diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs. After data collection was complete, the data were analyzed with In Vivo, Emotions, and Values coding for first cycle coding, followed by Pattern coding as the second cycle coding method. From these codes and patterns, categories were developed, which were then pattern-organized into emerging themes. This chapter provides a review of this case study's research questions, a description of the study sample and brief contextual information for each participant, a review of the procedures for methodology and analysis, a summary of the findings of the study, and a presentation of the analyzed data. The data are organized and presented by the two research subquestions and the themes that emerged within each sub-question.

Description of the Sample

Because the aim of this case study was to explore how White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged in conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers, the sample of this study was limited to White professors who had taught at least one diversity-focused course in a teacher education program. The race of the professor was bound in the study as a result of previous literature. Previous research reported the difficulty people of color, in general, and professors of color, in specific, have discussing experiences related to race, especially with someone who identifies as White (Atwater et al., 2013).

Therefore, as a White female, the researcher decided not to include professors of color in this case study in order to not skew data or put faculty of color in a difficult or unnecessarily uncomfortable position. Additional binding for the case study included institution demographics and geography. Professors were recruited from predominantly White private universities enrolling less than 6,000 undergraduate students in the Northeastern region of the United States.

The ideal number of participants was 10, with a minimum of eight; eight participants volunteered and remained throughout the duration of the research process. While all eight participants remained in the study, two participants engaged in the online asynchronous focus group after the group had ended. However, as the minimum requirements for participants were to: (a) answer the two focus group prompts and (b) respond to another participant's response in each prompt, the researcher decided those participants were able to meet the minimum criteria. Because a crucial aspect of case study as a research method is exploring the case within a natural context, the unique background experiences of each participant is important to discuss prior to the presentation of the analyzed data and the identified themes. All participants were identified using pseudonyms. Table 1 presents a background overview of the study's participants including their age, degree, and how long they have taught diversity-focused courses in higher education.

Table 1

Participants' Background Information

Pseudonym	Age	Degree	No. of years teaching diversity-focused courses
Sybill	early 60s	Ph.D.	~13
Luna	late 50s	Ed.D.	~10
Ginny	early 60s	Ed.D.	~6
Ron	mid-30s	Ph.D.	~6
Lily	late 50s	Ed.D.	~12
Penelope	mid-60s	Ed.D.	~11
Molly	early 50s	Ph.D.	~20
Dora	mid-40s	Ph.D.	~10

Sybill

Sybill was a White professor in her early 60s who was a full-time faculty member in a teacher education program. She had a Ph.D. and her dissertation research focused on issues of race in the public-school system. Sybill believed her identity as a Christian gives her a personal responsibility in caring about issues related to race. Sybill had taught diversity-focused courses for approximately 13 years and infused diversity-focused content into her non-diversity focused education courses.

Luna

Luna was a White woman in her late 50s who taught diversity-focused courses as an adjunct faculty member at several universities. Luna also taught English as a Second Language (ESL) students in the K–12 public school system. She had an Ed.D. and had been teaching diversity-focused courses for approximately 10 years. Luna noted that her passion for diversity-focused education began when her African American roommate in college made her aware of her own social identity as a White person and the impact race has on people's experiences.

Ron

Ron was a White man in his mid-30s who was a full-time faculty member in a teacher education program And has a Ph.D. Ron taught in the same type of environment as where he grew up, which he believed made him more effective in engaging his White students in discussions about race. He discussed the importance of his own journey towards racial awareness and the ways in which that journey helps his White preservice teachers in their own journeys. Ron had been teaching diversity-focused courses for approximately six years.

Ginny

Ginny was a White woman in her early 60s who was a full-time faculty member and taught courses on both the undergraduate and graduate levels. She had an Ed.D. and noted she had much experience with issues of race in education because she previously worked as a consultant and diversity training specialist for an urban school district. Ginny discussed being passionate about social justice as a result of her Catholic family's experience in Europe during the Holocaust in World War II.

Lily

Lily was a White woman in her late 50s who was a full-time faculty member in a teacher education program. She had an Ed.D. and self-identified as gay, which she believed gave her a sense of social consciousness with diversity. Lily was also involved in taking her preservice teachers overseas to experience diversity and teaching in a different context. She had been teaching diversity-focused courses for approximately 12 years.

Penelope

Penelope was a White woman in her 60s who was a professor emeritus who continued to teach diversity-focused courses as an adjunct professor. Penelope had her Ed.D. and taught

Methods and Intergroup Dialogue courses. The Intergroup Dialogue course Penelope taught specifically focused on race as a social identity. Penelope had African American children and noted that the racism they encountered in the United States public-school system motivated both her anti-racist research and her diversity-focused teaching. She had been teaching diversity-focused courses for approximately 11 years.

Molly

Molly was a White woman in her early 50s who was a full-time faculty member. She had a Ph.D. and considered herself an educational anthropologist. While Molly taught several diversity-focused courses, she infused diversity-focused content into all of the courses she taught. Molly discussed how diverse experiences in her childhood gave her an awareness of diversity, but that her racial identity awareness was not developed until she adopted biracial children. Molly had been teaching diversity-focused courses for approximately 20 years.

Dora

Dora was a White woman in her mid-40s who was a full-time faculty member in a teacher education program. She had her Ph.D. in English. Dora was originally from outside of the United States and used her experiences as an English Language Learner (ELL) and as an immigrant to make personal connections to course content for her students. Dora had been teaching diversity-focused courses for approximately 10 years.

Research Methodology and Data Analysis

Research Methodology

Case study. This qualitative research study was a single exploratory case study focusing on White professors who teach diversity-focused courses. One of the primary reasons a case study was chosen was that much of the previous research regarding multicultural and diversity-

focused education were conducted through case studies. Case studies allow the researcher to explore a social phenomenon within a bound context that has been experienced by a specific demographic (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2018). This single case study, exploring the experiences and strategies of White professors, was made up of eight participants who shared the salient bindings of the case: professors who were White and who taught diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs. Three research instruments were utilized to triangulate the data collected from participants to ensure as much validity and transferability as possible (Yin, 2018). The research instrumentation utilized were: a pre-study survey (used only for background context), a reflection response, a one-on-one interview, and an online asynchronous focus group. All of the collected data were stored on an encrypted hard drive and in a locked filing cabinet. Participants' identifying information was kept in a separate locked filing cabinet from participants' pseudonyms and collected data.

Upon receiving IRB approval to conduct research, the researcher began to recruit participants. To recruit participants, the researcher researched colleges and universities in the Northeastern region of the United States that would fit the binding of the case (i.e. private liberal arts school, predominantly White, fewer than 6,000 enrolled undergraduate students, and housing a teacher education program). The vast majority of the universities researched on the internet provided public web pages, which shared faculty members' pictures, bibliographic information, courses taught, and professional interests. From these public webpages a list was compiled of all of the participants who potentially fit the binding of the study.

Initially, 10 colleges and universities were found that fit the perimeters of the case study, located within a two-hour drive of the researcher's residence. From the 10 colleges and universities fitting the perimeters of the case, approximately 50 recruitment emails were sent out.

Over the following week, however, only a few potential participants responded. So, the geographical boundaries of the study were expanded several more times and approximately 100 more potential participants were emailed. In the IRB proposal, the ideal number of participants was 10, with a minimum of eight. From the approximately 150 recruitment emails sent, eight professors agreed to join the study. In the initial recruitment email, it was detailed that all participants would be required to complete a pre-study survey for contextual and background information as well as three forms of data collection: a reflection response, a one-on-one semistructured interview, and an online asynchronous focus group.

Pre-study survey. Once participants were recruited for the study and electronically signed the Informed Consent, they were sent a unique web link to the pre-study questionnaire through Qualtrics. The pre-survey study survey was utilized only as a means of obtaining background and contextual information such as: (a) age, (b) degree, (c) diversity-focused courses taught, and (d) length of time teaching diversity-focused courses. Participants were asked to complete the pre-study survey within five days. The majority of recruited participants completed the pre-study survey within the given time-frame. However, as the recruitment process occurred in the middle of December at the end of the fall semester and before the holidays, several participants took a few weeks to fill out the study.

Reflection response. As soon as participants completed the pre-study survey, they were sent an email with a Word document containing the reflection prompt. The participants were asked to complete the reflection response, save the document as a PDF, and email it back within 14 days. The reflection response contained two researcher-generated prompts: one focusing on participants' experiences and the other focusing on the strategies participants utilized in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Participant reflection responses

were an important method of data collection in this case study because they gave participants the opportunity to take time to think about and reflect on the prompts and to tell stories in their own ways (Glesne, 2016). Because continual analysis was being utilized (Creswell, 2012), and because specific and probing questions were to be added during the interview (Merriam, 2017), first-cycle coding for each reflection response was conducted prior to meeting with participants for the one-on-one interview.

One-on-one interview. Upon completion of the reflection response, the researcher set up one-on-one semistructured interviews with each participant. Interviews were a valuable data collection method because they gave the researcher the opportunity to have a purposeful and semistructured conversation with participants and allowed for follow-up or probing questions (Merriam, 2017; Yin, 2018). Each interview was scheduled to last between 75 and 90 minutes and contained four major themes including: (a) professor's background and interest, (b) curriculum, (c) strategies utilized, and (d) experiences engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. As a result of expanding the geographical location to find enough participants, as well as the unpredictability of the winter weather in the Northeastern region of the United States, only six of the eight participants were interviewed in person. One interview was conducted via a telephone conversation and the other was conducted via Skype. Both the phone and the Skype interviews lasted for approximately 60 minutes, while the other six interviews lasted longer than 80 minutes. Initially the one-on-one interviews were planned to be completed by the end of January and the online asynchronous focus group was to be conducted the first week in February. However, due to the busy nature of the beginning of the spring semester as well as unpredictable winter weather, several participants were not able to meet for

their interview until the end of February. So, interviews were completed by the end of February, and the online focus group began the first week in March.

All one-on-one interviews were, with participant approval, audio recorded. The transcription process began within three days of each interview. Because Merriam (2017) suggested new researchers manually transcribe and analyze data, each interview was manually transcribed using a computer software program and a foot pedal. Each transcript was edited twice before it was sent out for member-checking. The researcher's goal during this phase of data collection was to complete the transcription and editing of each interview within one week. With the exception of the last three interviews, which all took place during the same week, the transcription and editing of interviews were completed within that time frame. Upon completion of the transcription and editing, a copy of the transcript was emailed to the participant for member-checking and participants were requested to make any comments or edits they saw necessary. The only edits needed were the spelling of specific names or organizations.

Online asynchronous focus group. Following the one-on-one interviews, participants participated in a week-long online asynchronous focus group. One-on-one interviews allowed the researcher the opportunity to have a private and focused conversation with each participant. The focus group, however, allowed the researcher to observe participants engaging in a social context regarding the case topic (Glesne, 2016). Participants were asked to participate in each of the two threads at least two times, for a total minimum of four posts throughout the week. Approximately half of the participants posted significantly more than four posts, and two participants posted the minimum requirement. It should be noted that although all of the participants participated in the focus group, two participants, due to travel and health issues, participated after the group had closed. However, because the minimum expectation for

participants was to interact twice on each thread, and these participants did so, the researcher felt those two participants were able to meet the minimum requirement even after the group had closed.

Data Analysis

In order to be able to ask specific and probing questions during the interview, first-cycle coding was conducted on the reflection responses within three days of receiving each reflection response. Additionally, as time allowed between transcribing interviews, first-cycle coding was conducted on member-checked interview transcripts. Because Saldaña (2016) suggested that only using In Vivo coding during first cycle coding can limit data interpretation, In Vivo coding was used as the primary coding method with Emotions coding and Values coding as secondary coding methods during the first cycle of coding.

Although the researcher took analytic memos during read-throughs of each data source to make connections to other participants' comments, official coding did not begin until the fifth read-through. After the first round of In Vivo coding, each reflection response contained approximately 25–35 codes, each one-on-one interview contained approximately 400–700 codes, and each online focus group thread contained approximately 100–200 codes. As the researcher re-read the data, codes were reduced in each data source based on two criteria: (a) the scope of the research subquestions and (b) repetition of codes. During the second and third re-reading and reducing codes, codes were reduced based on the repetition of code connections where the In Vivo code was different, but the concept was synonymous or connected. The fourth and fifth time the researcher re-read each data source, Emotions coding and Values coding were used, respectively. Emotions coding did not prove to be substantial because many participants expressed little emotion in connection to their experiences and strategies. Values coding,

however, added richness to the analysis and helped to create initial categories for codes to fit into.

The sixth and final time the researcher re-read and reduced codes during first-cycle coding, codes continued to be reduced in the previous three ways and a fourth criteria for code reduction was added: the values expressed from the participants that were related to already existing codes. Hence, by the completion of the first cycle of coding, there were four criteria for reducing codes: (a) the scope of the research subquestions, (b) repetition of codes, (c) connection or similarity of codes, (d) previously expressed values. These steps were repeated across the data corpus and the codes in each data source were reduced by approximately 75% through this process. Approximately 50 codes, from which the initial codebook was compiled, were left after the first-cycle coding methods.

After using In Vivo, Emotions, and Values coding for first-cycle coding methods, Pattern coding was used for second-cycle coding. During the second-cycle of coding, initial categories were created for codes based on the research subquestions. So, the codes were organized into categories based on whether they addressed experiences participants had (research subquestion one) or strategies they utilized (research subquestion two). Each category was color-coded based on initial connection to a category and the ways in which codes might be related to each other. After categories were organized by research sub-question, a mind map was created to illustrate how codes might be organized and structured within each category. After reviewing the mind map several times and reorganizing and reducing the codes further, second cycle-coding was finalized by listing codes clustered with corresponding categories and then clustering categories together into emerging themes.

Summary of the Findings

The first research subquestion this case study explored was: How do White professors of diversity-focused courses experience the process of engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race? While all of the participants had a broad range of experiences, almost all of the participants experienced White preservice teachers' backgrounds including age and maturity, familial and White backgrounds, and previous interactions with race impacted the way they engaged in conversations focused on race. Most participants reported White preservice teachers' general openness in engaging in conversations focused on race, though many qualified that openness was often accompanied by difficulty and superficiality in discussions. Specific areas where participants noticed a superficiality in White preservice teachers' discussions about race included race as a general topic being difficult to engage in, a disconnect between pity and empathy, awareness and advocacy, and global race issues and local race issues. Finally, participants experienced a broad spectrum of ways that White preservice teachers responded to conversations focused on race. Negative responses from White preservice teachers included: skepticism, silence, and politeness. Positive responses included openness and empathy. The codes, categories, and themes from the data identified as addressing the first research subquestion are presented in Figure 3.

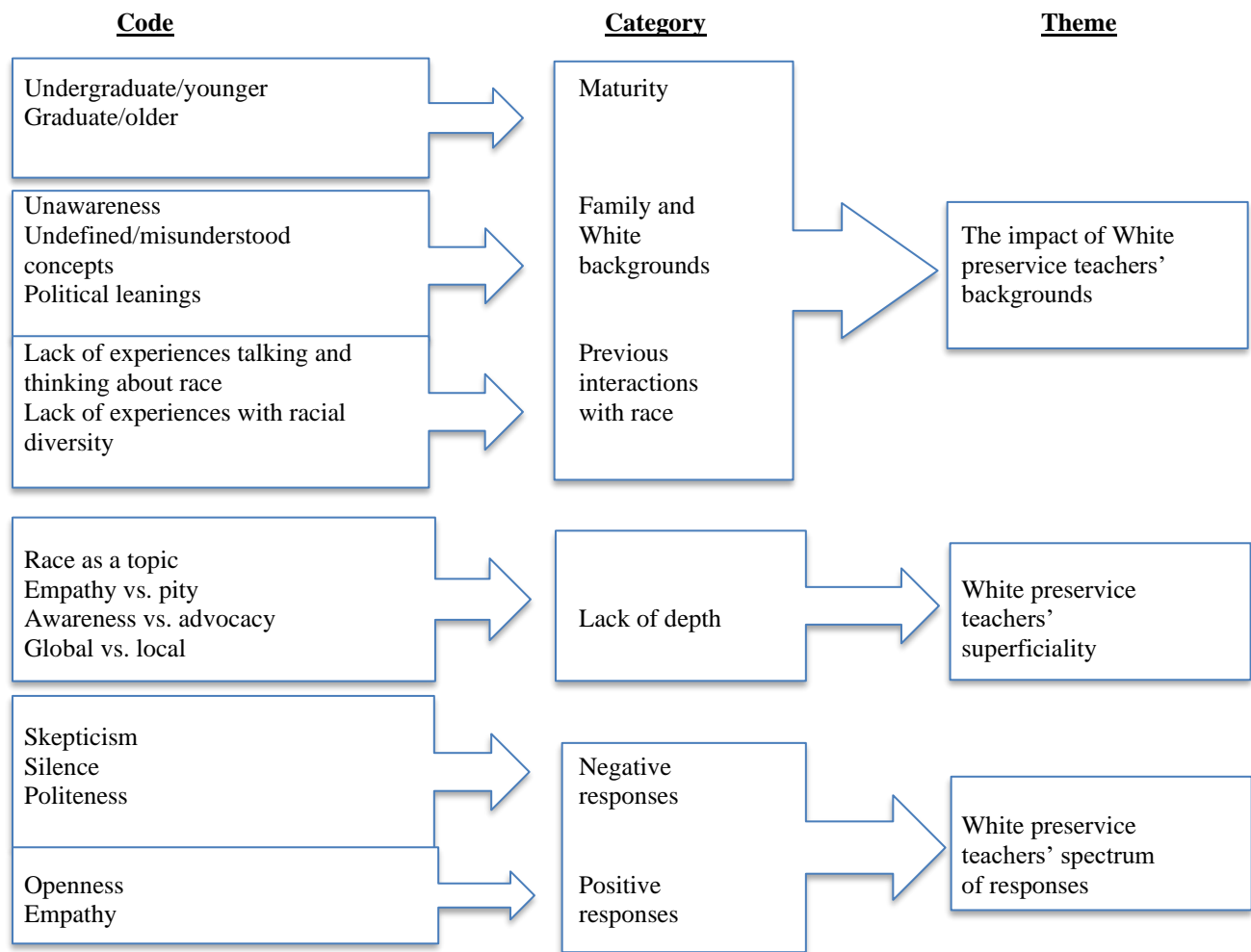


Figure 3. Research subquestion #1: Organization of codes, categories, and themes.

The second subquestion this study explored was: What are the strategies utilized in conversations focused on race in diversity-focused courses, and how effective are these strategies perceived to be by White professors of diversity-focused courses in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race? Participants reported using strategies before, during, and after discussions about race occurred in class. Before courses began, many participants organized the courses and the activities within courses in such a way as to make conversations focused on race easier and more impactful for White students. Participants also incorporated interactions and experiences as a way to introduce information related to race and engage students in class discussions about race. Interactions, both in class and outside of class were

reported to be significant and effective strategies for engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race. Lastly, participants reported the importance of multimodal education while discussing race issues in class. Common multimodal educational strategies across the data corpus included: class discussions, presentations, games and activities, multimedia, reading, and writing. The codes, categories, and themes from the data identified as addressing the second research subquestion are presented in Figure 4.

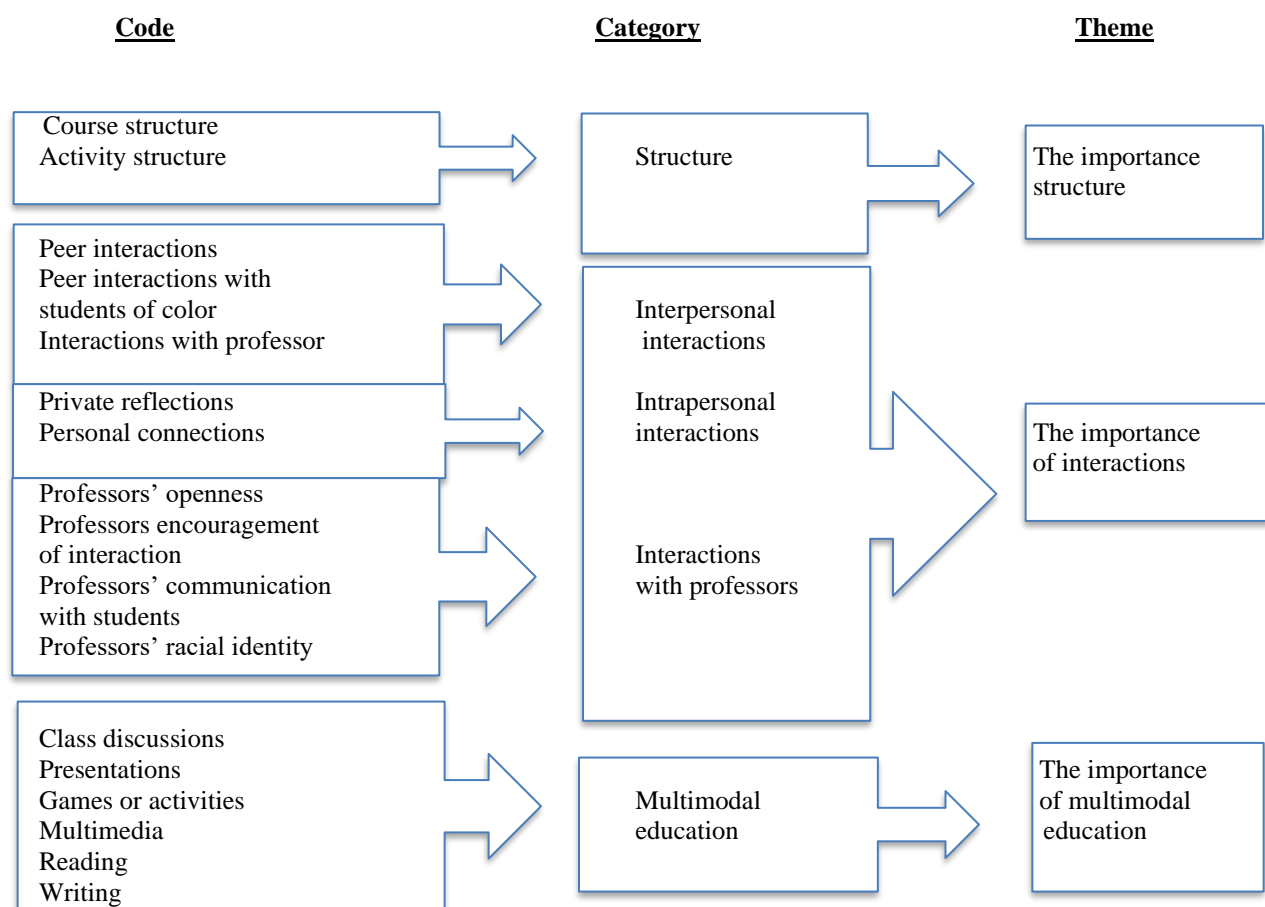


Figure 4. Research subquestion #2: Organization of codes, categories, and themes.

Presentation of Data and Results

This section presents the results of the data analysis. The overall research question of this research study is: How do White professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education

programs experience and engage White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?

The research question is broken down further into two subquestions: the first regarding White professors' experiences in engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race, and the second regarding White professors' strategies of engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race. The following presentation of data results is organized based on the two research subquestions and the themes that emerged within each of those subquestions.

Research Subquestion #1: How do White professors of diversity-focused courses experience the process of engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?

This research subquestion specifically explores the experiences White professors of diversity-focused courses have while they engage White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Three themes have emerged from the data that address this sub-question: (a) the impact of White preservice teachers' backgrounds, (b) White preservice teachers' superficiality in discussions about race, and (c) White preservice teachers' spectrum of responses to discussions about race.

Theme 1: The impact of White preservice teachers' backgrounds. All eight participants discussed the impact White preservice teachers' backgrounds had on how they experienced the process of talking about race. Participants reported White preservice teachers' backgrounds impacted how they engaged in conversations focused on race in three main ways: maturity, familial and White backgrounds, and previous interactions with race.

Maturity. Six of the eight participants reported that White preservice teacher's engagement in conversations focused on race was impacted by their maturity. Participants generally experienced more difficulty in engaging undergraduate students than graduate students. Participants reported feeling the need to modify both content and strategies as a result of

undergraduate students' maturity. Participants who taught both undergraduate and graduate students differentiated the ability for older or graduate students to filter discussions or to be more receptive of conversations focused on race. Several participants compared and contrasted the different race-related content and activities included in undergraduate and graduate courses. For example, while many other participants reported using Peggy McIntosh's (1989) "White Privilege" article with undergraduate students, Luna did not. Luna stated that she did not use it in her undergraduate classes for fear that her White undergraduate students would not understand it and "become very inflamed by it." Similarly, while she showed her graduate students the movie "The Color of Fear" (Wah, 1994), she did not show it to her undergraduate students because she did not believe they can "handle it."

The concern of students becoming inflamed over issues related to race was reported by other participants as well. Several participants reported that White preservice graduate students tended to be easier to engage in discussions about race as a result of their maturity and life experiences. Molly and Lily, however, noted this ease might have been due to their ability to filter their conversations in class rather than their ability to critically engage with content. In other words, White preservice graduate teachers might have had just as much difficulty as White preservice undergraduate teachers engaging in conversations focused on race, but graduate students were better at filtering their discussions. Molly, for example, reported that "race [is] the hardest [diversity-focused topic] because people feel shame . . . usually in the undergraduate; I think graduate students if they feel that way, don't say it." Lily similarly reported that while White graduate students filtered their thoughts, White undergraduate students were not necessarily mature enough to enact this during discussions.

Interestingly, still, Lily pointed out that her White adult undergraduate students did not necessarily exhibit that same ability. Lily stated,

I have gotten adult undergrads to say that they think [having conversations focused on race] is bullshit, for lack of a better word. In that, you know, we've all had to deal with adversity, get over it, kind of mindset. So that's an interesting perspective, and it generally doesn't come from the traditional it comes from my adult students.

Experience and education, accordingly, seemed to be additional aspects of maturity impact White preservice teachers' engagement in discussion about race. Five of the eight participants reported White undergraduate preservice teachers' maturity impacted their ability to think or speak deeply about content focused on race. Sybill noted many of her White freshmen students' lack of previous thinking or talking about race and lack of racially diverse experiences limited their ability to engage critically in discussions about race.

Familial and White backgrounds. All eight participants emphasized the impact White students' families and their backgrounds have on how they engage in conversations focused on race. The majority of participants reported that White preservice teachers were unaware of information and issues related to race because of their homogeneously White familial and experiential backgrounds. Participants noted that due to increasing racial segregation, it was highly probable for White preservice teachers to grow up without being aware of their racial identity or how race impacts society. Molly noted, "we grow up as White people being unmarked . . . that other people have accents . . . that other people have race." Racially homogenous experiences, or segregation, in families, neighborhoods, schools, and public areas led to a lack of racially diverse experiences for White preservice teachers.

Furthermore, all of the participants reported their White preservice teachers' racially homogenous backgrounds impacted the ways in which they could relate to or understand issues regarding race. Because many White preservice teachers did not have experience with racial diversity, they were not forced to think about or experience issues relating to race. Lack of thinking about or experiencing issues related to race was reported to result in unawareness of race issues both current and historical. Participants attributed White preservice teachers' unawareness to both the microcosm of their racially homogenous families and the macrocosm of White normativity within society. According to the majority of participants, both racially homogenous families and White normativity in society allowed White students to be, either consciously or subconsciously, disengaged from issues relating to race.

One of the primary aspects of White preservice teachers' unawareness reported in the data was not knowing or misunderstanding concepts related to race. Several participants noted the need to define key concepts that are often misunderstood. For example, Sybill reported the need to clarify the difference between race and ethnicity as well as the difference between wealth and income. Luna, Lily, Sybill, and Ginny described White students' shallow and incomplete understanding culture and the ways culture and race impact their future classrooms. Half of the participants discussed White students' use of colorblindness rhetoric during conversations focused on race and the difficulty some White students had in acknowledging racial differences. Ron shared examples of White preservice teachers who "found it very weird that [he] was asking [them] to look for difference."

White privilege was also commonly discussed as a difficult topic for White preservice teachers to think and talk about and was often misunderstood. Participants noted that White privilege tended to be a difficult concept for White preservice teachers to see or understand

because of the misunderstanding of what privilege is. Many participants explained their White preservice teachers typically understood privilege to be synonymous with wealth. Sybill said she often had White preservice teachers refute the validity of White privilege by saying they were “not rich.” Similarly, Ron said,

A lot of [White preservice teachers] don’t understand what privilege means, and they are very uncomfortable owning it There’s a lot who don’t like to see themselves as privileged because the only people they’ve encountered are of the same ilk as they are; same socioeconomic class. So, to them their experience has been a level playing field, and they don’t understand what equity actually means.

As a result of the misunderstanding of what White privilege is, many participants described White students as “shocked and unaware” (Lily) when professors clarify it.

Another commonly reported misunderstood concept in issues related to race was meritocracy. Sybill said that even though her White preservice teachers did not know the word ‘meritocracy,’ they held to the belief that through hard work everyone can be successful. She said her White preservice teachers “want to believe that we live in a fair country. They’re Americans, we’re the good guys, this is the best country in the world . . . and it’s kind of a shock to hear that that’s not exactly true.” Likewise, Ginny, Molly, and Ron reported the difficulty their students had in understanding systemic inequity and the fact that race impacts the way people experience life in the United States.

Historical and current systemic racist actions, particularly those where the United States government was complicit, was also new and shocking information for many White preservice teachers. Five of the eight participants reported White preservice teachers’ unawareness in matters related to historical and current racism and their inability to see race as a societal issue.

Ginny reported White students' shock and disbelief when hearing current systemic racial discrimination statistics. Similarly, Ron noted White preservice teachers' shock while learning about race issues such as redlining and the racist infrastructure in housing and location segregation. Dora described her White preservice teachers' surprise while learning about the ways in which the United States discriminated against different races applying for citizenship. Because of this unawareness, several participants reported assigning basic social studies presentations and projects to introduce White students to historical aspects of racial discrimination.

Half of the participants reported the impact White preservice teachers' political leanings had on their ability to engage in conversations focused on race. Four of the eight participants reported that it was challenging and difficult to engage politically conservative White students in discussions about race. Several participants reported limited conservative news outlets as having impacted White preservice teachers' ability to engage critically in conversations focused on race. Sybill, for example, explained, "We have a range of students here, but many of them are educated by very right-wing kind of websites and pundits, and so they'll repeat some of that stuff that you hear [there]." She noted that White preservice teachers often repeated concepts related to race, such as immigration, food stamps, reverse racism, and affirmative action without critical thinking or reflection. She reported pundit-repeated responses to conversations focused on race, such as reverse racism and anti-affirmative action, are so common that she is "more surprised when [those responses don't] come up."

Ron reported similar experiences and found students' second-hand experiences with racial diversity (i.e., the news) were generally negative towards concepts relating to race as well as toward people of color. According to Ron, the combination of many White students' limited

first-hand experiences with racial diversity, the limited conservative media sources they watched or listen to, and their inexperience in critically thinking about race, forced him to be careful in how and when to engage with them in discussions about race. Ron reported that because of the politically conservative backgrounds of his students “there is a greater capacity to offend in a way that is not actually conducive to conversation.” Likewise, Lily explained that White preservice teachers who came from smaller, more rural, and less diverse communities tended to have the most rigidity in their thinking and reluctance to engage in conversations about race. Dora reported that she did not discuss political issues in class and that her students seemed to be very careful in not beginning any arguments while talking about issues related to race.

Previous interactions with race. Due to White preservice teachers’ often racially homogenous experiences, participants reported their diversity-focused course was often the first time, many of the White preservice teachers thought or talked about race. Furthermore, more than half of the participants reported White preservice teachers’ difficulty in engaging in conversations focused on race was a result of not having previously thought or talked about race. Luna stated, “In writing, the White students will express they never thought about race before or how another student may feel who does not look like them.”

As a result of White preservice teachers’ lack of thinking about the race issues in general, many of them struggled to think deeply about the race-related concepts and information discussed in class. Many participants reported that many of their White students’ discussions about race remained superficially based on biases and stereotypes. Several participants reported that the lack of depth in thinking or talking about race came from the fact that many White preservice teachers’ parents did not talk to them about race. Ginny remarked, “They’re getting this for the first time; they don’t even know what to ask.” Sybill reported that her White students

have admitted, “We never talk about race. My parents just tell me to love everybody . . . if you do that, you’re ok.” Ron reported similar experiences with his White preservice teachers saying, “[Discussing] White capitalist, supremacist, patriarchy . . . can be a very jarring experience because White students aren’t used to being called on their racism.”

In addition to not thinking or talking about race, White preservice teachers were also reported to lack experiences and interactions with racial diversity, which impacted the ways participants engage them in conversations focused on race. Many of the participants attributed White preservice teachers’ lack of experience with racial diversity to their racially segregated and homogenous backgrounds. Ron revealed,

It is not a stretch to suggest that some of my students have never had a conversation with a person of color. By “conversation,” I mean an actual exchange of ideas, not a chance encounter at a fast food restaurant.

The majority of participants discussed White preservice teachers entering diversity-focused courses with very few experiences with racial diversity. Participants used terms like “sheltered” (Sybill, Ginny), “protected” (Dora), and “not exposed” (Ginny, Sybill, Penelope) to describe many of their White preservice teachers’ experiences with racial diversity. As a result of White students’ lack of experiences with racial diversity, participants reported having to spend significantly more time and energy on concepts related to race and culture. Dora mentioned that her White “preservice teachers who were not exposed to much diversity did not participate” in class discussions in the same ways as White preservice teachers who had been exposed to diversity. Many participants noted having to use basic awareness or empathy-building activities or assigning out-of-class interactions with racial diversity to open students’ mind. Almost all

participants commented that they did not believe their White students would be able to engage in deep conversations focused on race until they had significant experiences with racial diversity.

Theme 2: White Preservice teachers' superficiality while talking about race.

According to participants, White preservice teachers' lack of thinking about, talking about, or interacting with racial diversity led to difficulty in, inability to, or refusal to engage in deep discussions about race. The most commonly reported aspects of White preservice teachers' difficulty in engaging deeply in discussions about race were in talking about race, differentiating empathy versus pity, awareness versus advocacy, and global versus local issues related to race.

Race as a topic. Approximately half of the participants reported race to be the most difficult diversity-focused topic for White preservice teachers to talk about. Ron noted that race was such a difficult topic for his White preservice teachers because, for the most part, they did not have experience with racial diversity and they were not used to having to talk about race. Penelope, Ginny, and Luna reported that their courses were often one of the first times their White preservice teachers were expected to think about and "talk about race as a social identity" (Penelope). Molly noted that difficulty in discussion was a result of many White students not having accurate understanding of concepts or language to use related to race.

Most participants who talked about race as a difficult topic, however, qualified that while some White students were not comfortable talking about race, other White students were. Many participants attributed the differentiating factor between those comfortable talking about race and those not to be previous experience with racial diversity. Participants reported that because White students generally did not think about, talk about, or interact with race, they had difficulty in seeing the societal implications of race. Penelope noted that it was challenging to have "White people become racially literate and [be] able to see race and all of its implications."

Participants reported that White preservice teachers' lack of interest or willingness to interact either intrapersonal or interpersonally in issues related to race resulted in low comfort thresholds during conversations about race. For example, Ginny reported her White students avoided talking about race during certain activities. Ginny used Harvard University's (2011) "Project Implicit" tests, which were designed to reveal implicit bias in specific areas. She reported, nevertheless, "They never pick the race one. They pick age, religion; they pick really safe stuff." Ron reported his White students' disinterest in talking about race because they did not believe their future classrooms would really be racially diverse. Sybill and Luna's discussions included more nuanced explanations of their White preservice teachers' thresholds while discussing concepts relating to race. Luna said, "The Black/White issue is always difficult . . . they'll talk about every other race, but when you get to the Black/White issue it becomes difficult." Sybill gave a similar report saying, "Where they have the hard time is with the African American issue. That somehow is harder [than discussions about other races]." Molly theorized that the feelings of guilt and shame often attached to conversations focused on race made it one of the most difficult diversity-focused conversations to engage in.

Empathy versus pity. Almost all of the participants discussed the importance of their White preservice teachers having empathy for students of color in their future classrooms. Many participants, however, reported White preservice teachers' superficiality in understanding the difference between empathy and pity. Approximately half of the participants discussed White students' difficulty in understanding the difference between pity and empathy.

In the online focus group, Sybill expressed frustration that many of her White preservice teachers' experiences, particularly international experiences, with poor people of color, caused them to develop feelings of pity and a White Savior complex rather than empathy. Participants

reported White preservice teachers' superficiality in thinking about empathy versus pity came from inability or disinterest in deeply exploring content related to race. Several other participants responded to Sybill's discussion in the focus group with similar experiences. Lily, however, pointed out that the program at her university specifically engaged preservice teachers in trainings and debriefings regarding empathy and pity before and after experiencing racial diversity. Participants reported a paradoxical ability for White preservice teachers to remain engaged in a racially diverse experience, but lack depth in critically examining their own racial identity in connection to society and social positioning. Sybill suggested,

[White preservice teachers have] a bit of Derrick Bell's [1980] "interest convergence" (the idea that White people will only support social justice when there's something in it for them) going on, albeit subliminally . . . serving others in another place during a missions trip reinforces [White preservice teachers'] view of [themselves] as kind, giving individuals, without requiring [them] to examine how [their] position of social privilege has benefited [them] at the expense of those in [their] own community.

A few participants discussed even more nuanced aspects of empathy and pity. Ginny, for example, noted that her White preservice teachers "express compassion and empathy, but they don't really get it." Half of the participants reported White preservice teachers' ability to have empathy for poor people of color, especially children, without engaging in more critical or personal reflection of race issues.

Global versus local. A similar aspect to White preservice teachers' superficiality in differentiating empathy versus pity, is the superficiality in the way White preservice teachers engaged in global versus local race issues. Sybill, Molly, and Ginny discussed White students' ability to engage with race issues from global perspective but not from a local perspective. In the

online asynchronous focus group, six of the eight participants reported experiencing the disparity between White students' engagement with global race issues versus local race issues. In the online focus group, Sybill wrote,

Many of my students travel extensively during their time at the university through mission trips. Although these junkets are highly beneficial in broadening their global understandings, what they learn on the trips doesn't always transfer to their beliefs about racism in the U.S.

The thread of responses to Sybill's comment regarding the disconnect between race issues globally versus locally was the most in-depth discussion during the focus group. Six of the eight participants responded to Sybill's comments and agreed that when international experiences for White preservice teachers were unmitigated and unfacilitated, implicit bias and stereotypes were often reinforced. Molly noted that while her White preservice teachers could see and engage in race-related issues from a global sense, "many . . . White students often have a hard time seeing" race-related issues in a local sense. For instance, Molly shared an example of a White preservice teacher who was skeptical of bilingual education in the United States, but during a school trip to Italy, which was mitigated and facilitated with discussions and reflections, the student realized they had been harder on immigrants in the United States than they were on those in Italy.

Both self and societal reflection connecting global and local race-related issues were difficult for White preservice teachers. Participants noted that because White preservice teachers were often superficial while talking about race, experiences with racial diversity had the potential to be harmful rather than beneficial. Ginny, who tried to include international educational norms into class discussions about racial diversity, noted White students often exhibited deficit thinking. Similarly, Penelope, in the online focus group, lamented that institutions and even

diversity-focused professors put “so much hope . . . in these brief [diversity] experiences when they often end up being counter-productive, emphasizing the ‘White savior’ perspective or solidifying deficit thinking.”

Awareness versus advocacy. The ability to feel empathy without a sense of advocacy was the final area where participants reported superficiality in their White preservice teachers’ discussions about race. All of the participants reported White preservice teachers’ increase in empathy and awareness related to race as a result of diversity-focused courses. However, several participants noted empathy and awareness were not sufficient. Ginny summed up several participants’ frustration saying, “They’ve been exposed and I think if that’s where I get them, I guess I’m happy with that. Not really, but I have to be.” Half of the participants reported the disparity between White preservice teachers’ awareness of race issues and their advocacy in race issues.

For some participants, advocacy versus awareness was an issue of maturity. For example, Lily differentiated between graduate and undergraduate students saying, “With grad level classes, I get a little more into advocacy and action, however I just think developmentally [undergraduate students] are more at an awareness phase than they are ready to go beat the world.” Additionally, during the focus group, Lily admitted, “At the level I teach it is difficult to get past [awareness] to that of action.” Participants reported White preservice teachers became more aware of issues regarding race and racism throughout their diversity-focused course, but qualified that awareness did not always lead to advocacy. Several participants mentioned the superficiality of awareness in contrast with the depth of social action. Penelope noted that it was challenging for White preservice teachers “to be able to recognize their own role as advocates, potential advocates in schools.”

Theme 3: White Preservice teachers' spectrum of responses to discussions about race. Throughout all data sources, participants reported experiencing a variety of responses from White preservice teachers as they engaged in conversations focused on race. White preservice teachers' responses to issues related to race fell into two categories: negative responses and positive responses. Negative responses were responses in which participants felt that White preservice teachers did not respond in ways conducive to learning or awareness. Positive responses were responses in which participants felt that White preservice teachers responded in ways allowing for a continuation or depth of discussions about race. In some instances, responses that seemed negative were actually positive and, conversely, responses that seemed positive were actually negative.

Negative responses. The most commonly occurring negative responses that participants experienced from White preservice teachers during conversations focused on race were skepticism, silence, and politeness.

Different participants discussed different aspects of White preservice teachers' skeptical responses during discussions about race. Sybill and Ginny discussed White preservice teachers' skepticism over the credibility of information related to race. Sybill reported White preservice teachers' skepticism of the objectivity of authors of color. She reported her White students expressing skepticism of chapters in their multicultural education textbook and making comments such as, "This chapter was biased against White people." She also reported her White students' dismissiveness towards information from people of color saying, "Well, she's Black, so of course she thinks that." Ginny similarly discussed students' skepticism and added that new information about race or racism often created cognitive dissonance for White preservice teachers. Ginny reported White preservice teachers' skepticism about factual information from

credible sources such as the Office for Civil Rights as well as their own test results after taking Harvard University's (2011) "Project Implicit" tests.

Three of the eight participants noted that White preservice teachers were not only skeptical of the credibility of information about race and racism, but also of their own implication in race issues. Sybill, Ginny, and Molly all experienced White preservice teachers responding, "I'm not racist!" during conversations focused on race. Ron reported that because his White students did not believe they would teach in racially diverse classrooms, they were skeptical of the necessity to know or apply content on issues related to race. Several participants expressed frustration over students' skepticism, and they struggled to find new and convincing ways of helping White students move beyond skepticism. However, while skepticism could be, and often was reported as a negative response, it was not intrinsically negative. Because new information, particularly difficult or challenging information such as race, often created cognitive dissonance, skepticism was a normal response students needed to experience. Several participants, therefore, noted the importance of having sufficient time throughout the semester to adequately address cognitive dissonance and skepticism.

In addition to skepticism, many participants reported White preservice teachers responding to discussions about race with silence. Silence, like skepticism, was reported to not be intrinsically negative, though it could be. Six of the eight participants reported their White preservice teachers responding to discussions about race by remaining silent. Luna reported "typically one or two White students who will ask . . . more probing questions. However, the rest will sit silent." Ron expressed frustration with his White students' silence saying, "There are, of course, always those voices who attempt to direct the discussion, but it is the absolute 'silence' of some—the refusal to engage in conversation—that I find challenging." Silence was

not only challenging because of a lack of participation, but because it also made it difficult to assess what White students were thinking or to explore difficult discussions about race with them. Ginny experienced White students remaining silent during conversations, so much so that she reported constantly changing activities so students would engage. She said, “Some people will absolutely refuse to talk, so then I have to put them in small groups so they can talk to each other.”

While many participants reported White preservice teachers’ silence to be a negative response, not all participants experienced silence as negative. While silent in class, which generally appeared indicative of resistance or reluctance to engage in discussions, many White preservice teachers completed private or online writing reflections showing critical reflection and engagement. Sybill believed this was due partly to those students’ introverted nature, while both Luna and Lily attributed it to students’ youth, inexperience, and the fact that they were “still searching for their voices in the world” (Lily).

Lastly, several participants reported politeness as a negative response from White preservice teachers during conversations focused on race. Politeness, similar to silence, was a difficult response for professors to engage with because it did not give professors the opportunity to engage critically with White students. Dora, while not commenting on whether politeness expressed during conversations was positive or negative, reported that students were “so careful not to start any arguments.” Ginny reported similar experiences, yet qualified that often politeness used as avoidance depended on the sex of the student. She experienced White female preservice teachers’ tendency to be too polite and say what they think she wanted to hear rather than actually engage in discussions. Ron reasoned, “Sometimes when they’re hedging, they don’t let their true thoughts come out, so I can’t help them identify what might be considered a

microaggression.” Sybill suggested polite responses to discussions about race were another result from White preservice teachers’ families and their White backgrounds. Sybill reported that her White preservice teachers claimed their parents taught them, specifically about race and racism, they just needed to be kind and polite to everyone. Politeness then, while appearing positive on the surface, did not necessarily allow deeply critical and reflective discussions about race. When conversations remained polite rather than critical, professors reported it difficult to discuss personal implications or advocacy because it maintained racism as personal rather than societal.

Positive responses. All of the participants reported experiencing positive responses from White preservice teachers while talking about race. Several participants even noted they had experienced “far more positive [responses] than negative” (Sybill). Overall participants reported experiencing positive responses, such as openness and empathy, from White preservice teachers during discussions about race.

The most commonly reported positive response was White preservice teachers’ openness to discussions about race. Even though initial responses from White preservice teachers might have been negative, many participants said that eventually White preservice teachers responded with openness towards discussing race. Sybill said, “I’d have to say that the majority of my White students have been open and responsive and willing to reflect on their societal status as Whites.” While other participants did not go so far as to report their White preservice teachers’ willingness to consider their own social positioning, the majority of participants reported that White preservice teachers were willing to engage with new information. Ginny, Luna, and Lily all reported students making comments such as: “I never thought of that before” (Luna), “Oh, I didn’t know that!” (Lily,) and “Wow, I never even thought about that” (Ginny). In fact, seven of

the eight participants reported experiencing White preservice teachers' openness to conversations about race. Molly reported,

Students who were very sort of anti-bilingual education, anti-immigration would write these reflections about like, "Oh my God, we were in a museum and they had signs in English or I couldn't have been able to understand" and feeling a lot of compassion for the refugees in Sicily that they didn't necessarily feel for the refugees in the US . . . and so then coming back and then being like, "Whoa. If those are people, these must be people too."

While conversations focused on race were both new and often initially difficult for White preservice teachers, participants were able to help them through the difficulty and challenges to openness.

Likewise, empathy was a positive response participants experienced from White preservice teachers during discussions about race. Not all participants believed empathy in and of itself was the goal of the discussions or the final level of awareness. However, most participants discussed the importance of White students' developing empathy regarding race issues. Luna noted that she believed empathy was one of the most important skills her White preservice teachers could learn. Luna mentioned that if students were not able to be empathetic, they would struggle to successfully teach racially diverse students. Empathy was valued by participants to be a key aspect in the ability to engage successfully both in discussions about race and in racially diverse experiences. Sybill reported that White preservice teachers "[began] to feel empathy for the first time" when they learned about the historical institutional systems of oppression that people of color have experienced. Dora shared a story where her students' empathy for children of color in lower socioeconomic situations translated into action as they

donated clothes to children at a school one of their classmates worked in. Empathy was reported, then, as a key aspect of White students' identifying and valuing the impact of race in society. Empathy was reported as not only a positive response from White preservice teachers, but also a significant aspect of students being able to begin to engage in discussions about race. Sybill reported that "most [White preservice teachers] have shown concern for their future students of color and . . . have been anxious to learn how to teach and treat these students in a just and equitable classroom." The majority of participants noted that a goal of their diversity-focused courses was for students to understand their experiences were not universal. Several participants noted White preservice teachers demonstrated empathy by working to see society through the experiences of people of color.

Research Subquestion #2: What are the strategies utilized in conversations focused on race, and how effective are they perceived to be by White professors of diversity-focused courses in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race?

The second research subquestion explored the strategies participants used in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race and how effective those strategies were perceived to be. Three themes emerged from the data through which participants shared strategies of engagement and the ways they perceived those strategies to be effective. While certain aspects of each of the themes overlap, the themes include: the importance of structure, the importance of interactions, and the importance of multimodal education.

Theme 4: The importance of structure. Several participants reported using structure as a strategy to engage White preservice teachers in discussions about race. The data showed two major aspects of structure that participants utilized to increase effectiveness in engaging White students in conversations focused on race: course structure and activity structure.

Course structure. The majority of participants reported structuring their diversity-focused course in ways to make conversations about race more effective for student learning and growth. Seven of the eight participants noted that because race was often such a sensitive and challenging topic for White preservice teachers to talk about, the structure of the course was significant. Several participants reported structuring their course through a progression of course material in order to help students interact incrementally with race content. Additionally, participants reported the need to strategically scaffold the progression of course content due to White preservice teachers' inexperience in thinking and talking about issues related to race.

Ron noted that because the vast majority of his students had not thought or talked about issues related to race, he structured his course content from "book theory" to in-person interactions with racial diversity. The theoretical portion of Ron's class included readings, discussions, a choice board activity, which helped students to "engage with very difficult material through their own lens," and multicultural specialization strands (including culturally responsive pedagogy, critical pedagogy, or social justice pedagogy). Ron then progressed his students from theory into practice by requiring students to engage in racially diverse settings. While he stated that his course was "a work in progress," Ron believed this type of structure was more effective because it "maximizes theory with practice." Sybill, on the other hand, reported that she structured her course like a sandwich.

[They] start with race and do kind of several sessions on race in the beginning of the semester. And then [they] . . . switch it up a little bit. And then [they] come back to race again at the end of the semester . . . [she gives them] a little break in between.

Sybill mentioned that race was the hardest diversity topic for White preservice teachers to talk about. However, because White students typically enjoyed talking about other aspects of

diversity such as exceptionalities and socioeconomic status, she used this as a break in between the content focused on race. Sybill believed this structure was effective because it allowed students a break from the difficult material and gave them the entire semester to interact with new and difficult material.

One of Molly's diversity-focused courses was structured based on Boal's (1979) *Theater of the Oppressed*, in which students created and worked through scenes related to inequity and oppression. During the course, groups created sculptures that reflected their personal experiences with oppression and inequity. Students then chose one sculpture to follow through the semester as the real scenario. Through the progression of the class, students moved from the real scenario to the ideal scenario and discussed ways in which the real situation could realistically be altered to an ideal situation. Throughout the semester, students worked through and discussed oppression and inequity. Molly believed this strategy was effective because it gave White preservice teachers the opportunity to listen to real situations of inequity and then participate in discussing potential solutions for similar situations that might occur in reality.

Activity structure. Beyond structuring the scaffolding of race content courses, the majority of participants reported structuring activities or the progression of activities as a strategy for engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race.

Several participants reported organizing activities according to scaffolding student knowledge and ability to discuss concepts related to race. Participants discussed both the need to understand White students' previous experiences with race as well as to constantly evaluate students' engagement during class. Some participants structured activities in order to give students understanding and language around concepts needed for conversations on race. For example, because most of her White preservice teachers misunderstood the concept of privilege,

Sybill used PBS's (2003) series "Race - The Power of an Illusion," chapter three "The House We Live In," to help students understand the difference between wealth and income. Following this, she used her own family experience in buying a house in a predominantly White neighborhood, which was then worth several times the amount it was bought for. She "find[s] this to be really effective because from there [she] can talk about White privilege, and then they understand."

Likewise, Lily structured activities in order to introduce conversations about race. Lily said,

[I use Dr. Seuss' (1984)] *Butter Battle Book* first and then . . . a couple of sessions later . . . [a] White privilege kind of segue . . . so that when we get to that White privilege, they're more open. At that point, they've already talked about some of these things.

Other participants structured activities by how risky an activity was in order to effectively move students from safer conversations into more sensitive conversations about race. For instance, Ginny said,

I always classify [activities] by risk. Basically, low risk, medium risk, or high risk. And I . . . make decisions all the time about that, every semester, and that determines whether they work or not; if I hit that zone. You know, because you can't always stay low-risk because then they think it's fun. It's all fun . . . when I hit medium to high risk, the tone changes in the classroom. Sometimes it gets more contemplative and reflective, sometimes I worry that kids have left feeling badly and they're never ever gonna say.

Molly also discussed the importance of structuring activities to give students the opportunity to more easily talk about race. She noted the importance of having students engage in fun and playful activities, which balance the challenging and uncomfortable discussions. Molly structured her activities so that when she began difficult discussions about race, students had "let

[their] guard down . . . and [they've] also shown up.” Structuring activities in this way was reported to help White students feel more comfortable and involved while talking about race.

Theme 5: The importance of interactions. All participants reported using interactions as a strategy for engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race. All eight participants specifically reported the importance of interpersonal interactions, intrapersonal interactions, and interactions with professors.

Interpersonal interactions. According to all of the participants, interpersonal interactions were one of the most valuable ways for White preservice teachers to engage in conversations about race. Interpersonal interactions were reported to be peer interactions in class and out-of-class interactions with racial diversity. Peer interactions included both online peer interactions and in-person peer interactions, but were specific to interactions between classmates. Out-of-class interactions were specific to experiences of racial diversity in out-of-class settings. All participants reported seeing significant impact from student-to-student interaction during conversations focused on race. Participants mentioned that because so many White students entered college with little racially diverse experiences, it was crucial for them to hear other students’ experiences and views. In-class peer interactions gave White preservice teachers who had not had racially diverse experiences the opportunity learn from students who had.

Several participants specifically discussed the importance of online peer interaction because it gave the opportunity for introverted students to share their thoughts and experiences more freely. Sybill and Lily both reported students who tended to be quiet in class were actively engaged in online discussion board postings. Sybill reported,

[Online discussion postings] gives [White preservice teachers] the opportunity to write, to think about their reflections, [and] to comment on each other. Those that are introverts

that have a hard time speaking in class, that's the place where they can really shine and talk about their opinions and their experiences.

In addition to giving introverts opportunities to participate in conversations, online discussions gave students confidence to be more genuine because difficult conversations are not face-to-face. Molly noted her White students' conversations about race were more critical and open during online interactions. Molly said, "In some ways, [the diversity-focused course] being an online course . . . people took more risks what they were willing to say because we weren't all in the same room." Participants reported that it was important for White preservice teachers to be honest during interactions without overly censoring thoughts. Not only did this create opportunities to engage more deeply, but also gave professors the opportunity to evaluate students' growth and to interact with them in appropriate ways.

In addition to peer interactions being important for conversations focused on race in general, all of the participants discussed the specific importance of peer interactions with students of color. Because so many White preservice teachers entered college with so few racially diverse experiences, it was significant for them to have the opportunity to hear about the experiences of their classmates of color. Sybill reported that while White students were skeptical of the biases of authors of color, they were open and willing to learn from their classmates of color. Molly said that White preservice teachers' interactions with students of color were important because "White people [can be] educated about the complexity of [race issues]." Molly reported that it was more difficult for White students to gloss over or avoid conversations focused on race when students of color were in the class. Dora described a situation where her White students were moved to action based on the empathy they felt after hearing a student of color discuss his life experiences. Sybill theorized that interactions with classmates of color

were a significant opportunity for White preservice teachers to see their experiences were not universal and that race impacted the way people experienced living in the United States.

According to participants, when White students heard students' of color experiences, it created cognitive dissonance. Cognitive dissonance, when mitigated and facilitated, could then give space for critical discussion. Luna stated that her class had "the best discussions on race . . . when the kids who are the minority speak up about their life experiences." Almost every participant agreed that having students of color engaging in class discussions was invaluable to their conversations focused on race. Penelope, for example, said,

[Students of color] share where they are and what experiences they've had related to their own social identities and their own privilege and positionality in society. And oppression. So, the White students are hearing the life experiences of students of color. Participants, however, did admit that conversations focused on race sometimes changed when students of color were present. Ron noted,

When [students of color] are absent, people are less afraid of offending them . . . just one [student of color] is enough to make people much more conscious about how they're speaking - which is both good and bad. Obviously, we should be conscious of not offending people, but sometimes when they're hedging, they don't let their true thoughts come out, and I can't help them.

Approximately half of the participants reported having to balance engaging White preservice teachers and protecting students of color during discussions about race. Participants reported not wanting students of color to feel they had to speak on topics related to race or to represent their race. Molly reported making sure to address microaggressions in class because she did not want her students of color to have to choose between being educators or being silent. Participants

noted, however, that while they worked to ensure students of color did not have the responsibility of educating White students on race issues, it was invaluable when students of color participate in class discussions about race.

In addition to peer interactions in the classroom, the vast majority of participants reported the importance of racially diverse interactions outside of classroom. Penelope required her students to observe in both ESL and mainstream classrooms, and Ron required students to engage in racially diverse interactions outside of classes, which were facilitated and debriefed through reflections. Participants who were able to require sustained racially diverse field experiences reported these interactions were often transformational. Meanwhile, Luna and Ginny both lamented they were not able to include sustained or facilitated racially diverse field experiences with their undergraduate students.

It is interesting and important to note that many participants qualified the need for mitigating and facilitating interactions with racial diversity. More than half of the participants reported the importance of giving White preservice the opportunity to critically reflect and discuss experiences with racial diversity. Participants noted that reflection and discussion were valuable to avoid the reification of bias and stereotypes. Molly noted that sometimes she experienced the “awful feeling that students have sort of reified stereotypes as a result of an experience that you hoped would open up.” While the majority of participants emphasized the necessity of mitigating and facilitating White students’ experiences with racial diversity, different participants utilized different mitigation strategies. For example, Dora required students to give presentations and include factual information in reflections. Ron required students to reflect on their first-hand and second-hand experiences and then critically reflect on

the differences between those experiences. Lily and Molly both used reflection responses and group training and debriefing for students they took overseas on school trips.

Intrapersonal interactions. In addition to interpersonal interactions, participants reported intrapersonal interactions were an important strategy for engaging White preservice in conversations focused on race. Participants reported utilizing intrapersonal interactions through students' private reflections and making personal connections to content or discussions about race.

All eight participants utilized private reflections or reflective responses for students to use while engaging in conversations focused on race. Participants noted that private journals gave White preservice teachers the opportunity to interact with discussions about race in private and reflective ways. Luna believed one reason why private reflections or journals were effective was because "it's not something they share." Private reflections, like online class discussions also gave students who tended to be quiet in class the opportunity to privately interact with content. During the online focus group, Sybill said,

At the [discussion] time, [White students'] silence seemed like tacit agreement. When I gave them a chance to reflect in writing, however, I found that some of those silent White students disagreed with their more vocal friends, but hesitated to do so in public . . . I've learned that allowing opportunity for written reflection sometimes helps push past the silence.

Many participants responded to Sybill's focus group comment and reported similar experiences with students' private intrapersonal interactions. Lily suggested "students are still searching for their voice in the world" and accordingly were more willing to reflect privately than publicly.

Luna and Molly mentioned that sometimes private written reflections allowed for deeper and more critical interaction than in-class discussions.

Many participants reported combining both interpersonal and intrapersonal interactions by using intrapersonal interactions to mitigate and debrief interpersonal interactions. Penelope used reflection journal prompts at the end of her class sessions to allow students to privately reflect on content or class discussions. Lily also shared that she gave students time at the end of class “to finish . . . the conversation with them either writing it down and they don’t show it to anybody, or sharing.” Ron assigned private reflections, called “Triple Entry Journals,” to introduce and facilitate reflections on students’ experiences with diversity. Private reflections were also used as ways for participants to interact with students by asking questions or making comments to encourage students to deeper and more critical thinking.

Participants also reported giving students opportunities to make personal connections to discussions or content about race for intrapersonal interaction. The majority of participants gave opportunities for students to make personal connections both through private reflection as well as in-class discussions. Lily believed students’ personal connections to content are important. She stated,

I think [White preservice teachers] don’t internalize it unless you kind of force it . . . and so for much of the activities, I always try to - even if they write it down for themselves, that’s fine, but just to do that personal connection kind of a thing.

Molly also reported the need for White preservice teachers to relate to content about race because there was often an experiential and cognitive gap between White students and issues related to race. She noted the importance of “recognizing the distance between having a personal experience and being able to connect that [experience] to big ideas. Like, that’s a pretty far

distance to travel.” So, she reported using private reflections as a mitigating activity for White preservice teachers who engaged in experiences with racial diversity. Participants also reported the need to scaffold students’ knowledge about race, which could be accomplished through intrapersonal interactions. Luna described the importance of utilizing personal connections for scaffolding student understanding saying, “I think I always go after that personal connection first, and start there and then build from there. You’ve got to scaffold it down so you can start on their level and then keep going and keep going.”

According to participants, connecting content about race to White students was a valuable strategy because it gave White preservice teachers the opportunity to think about and reflect on new and challenging content in practical ways. By encouraging students’ personal connections to content and conversations about race, participants engaged White students in ways that work through, minimize, or avoid the guilt and shame often accompanying discussions about race. Intrapersonal interactions were effective strategies for mitigating experiences with diversity, whether inside of class or outside of class. Intrapersonal interactions also helped to bridge the gap between the White preservice teachers’ lack of experience and proximity to issues related to race.

Professor interactions. In addition to interpersonal and intrapersonal interactions, participants reported the importance of how they, as the professor, interact with White preservice teachers during conversations about race. Participants reported several strategies for interacting with White students: professor openness, professors’ communication with students, and professors’ racial identity.

All eight of the participants reported the importance of sharing their own personal experience regarding race with their students. Participants found it helpful to discuss their own

journeys through racial awareness while they engaged with their White preservice teachers. Participants also found their White students to be more interactive in discussing race when professors were open. For example, Sybill used herself as an example of privilege saying, “Don’t get me wrong, I worked hard to be where I am today. But as I was working hard my Whiteness was working for me in ways I never knew.” Luna and Ron both used their own personal experiences of realizing they were marked by race and how their Whiteness impacts the way they saw the world. Luna told her students about her own journey of coming becoming aware of her race and how her race positioned her in society. Ron reported using himself as an example of the how awareness of race-related issues can be transformative. He said, “Talking about my own journey and that transformation is in fact possible seems to be helpful . . . so, using myself as a model for that experience.” Similarly, Penelope discussed her own experiences with her students and told them,

At one point, I didn’t understand a lot about social identity and how it positions us in society . . . but coming back [to the United States from West Africa with two African American sons] and encountering the racism everywhere was one way for me to learn.

Lily used personal stories because she believed they help White preservice teachers see that personal and worldview transformation was possible. Participants reported using their personal experiences was well-accepted and impactful because it helped White preservice teachers to engage in challenging conversations about race knowing they were not alone in their journeys.

While the majority of participants also reported that the ways they interact with their White students during discussions about race were important, they differed on how they interact with students. Several participants reported addressing issues such as bias, stereotypes, or microaggressions directly and immediately when they occur in class. Direct engagement,

however, varied in degree based on the participant. Luna and Ginny reported directly holding White preservice teachers accountable for problematic comments made in class and often used those comments as way to begin a discussion. Luna said, “I have to come out with it. Like, basically say it to them.” She believed directness is effective because other people generally will not directly speak with White students about race. Ginny, while reporting being direct with students, was also more hesitant about the impact of directly addressing problematic comments. She said she tried to balance directness with giving students the option to “opt out” of uncomfortable activities and communicating that she would “never out” them. However, she also reported being direct in certain situations and said, “I’ll say things like, ‘Let’s talk about this for a minute. Did you notice that you just whispered ‘ghetto’? Ok, so let’s talk about that.’”

Ron, while holding students accountable in class for microaggressions, also reported using students’ private reflection responses and journals rather than in-class discussions to interact with them about things they write or reflect on. He explained,

Usually [I] have those conversations in person. So, while there’s some writing on the page, it’ll be more like, ‘Here, I want to see you in my office to talk about this . . . but the [in-person] conversation piece is the most effective, even more than the journals.

Molly also directly addressed White preservice teachers’ problematic comments saying that she has found it helpful in “creating an opportunity where conversational tones kind of flatten the hierarchy . . . and we’re engaging” as peers.

Other participants, however, intentionally did not hold White students accountable during conversations about race in front of their peers. Sybill and Penelope both reported feeling strongly about “not wanting to put any student on the spot” (Sybill) and “not hold[ing students] accountable [in class]” (Penelope). Penelope, like Ron, noted that she and her co-teacher used

students' reflection responses to engage with students about their interaction with discussions about race. She said, "The journals are not just reflective journals, they are response journals, so we respond to the students. Of course, it gives us a ton more work . . . but . . . one place where we mediate that is within the journals."

Finally, many participants reported their racial identity as an important factor in interacting with their White students. Five of the eight participants said that identifying as White was an advantage for engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Sybill reported that, unfortunately, White preservice teachers tended to be skeptical about authors of color and believed they were biased against White people. Therefore, she said,

When [they] have a White person telling [them] about racism and White privilege, as a White student, it's harder . . . it shouldn't be that way, but the reality is that it is that way . . . they kind of respond better when they hear it from a White person.

Ginny had similar experiences in that her White preservice teachers were surprised she, a White person, believed in implicit bias and structural racism. Ron and Molly also agreed being White was an advantage in their interactions with White preservice teachers. Both, however, qualified that their Whiteness was an advantage for them only when they were teaching predominantly White students. Ron noted that because his White students could "readily identify" with his Whiteness, his Whiteness was an advantage, but if he taught a different demographic, it would not be. Molly, likewise, qualified by saying,

If [the professor] takes a stance where Whiteness is a part of what [students] are learning about in a diversity class, that that is an advantage when you have White students . . . [but], if [the professor] is talking about diversity from the perspective of a person of color . . . [then] it's just White people talking to White people about other people.

Luna and Dora, however, did not believe being White was an advantage while interacting with their White preservice teachers. Luna believed that because she did not have the experiences of a person of color, she could not have as significant an impact on her White students. Dora did not consider her Whiteness an advantage to her class discussions on race because she had her classes “look at . . . resources that were written and filmed by professionals of other races than White.” She did, however believe it “is important that the White professor has knowledge of U.S. history, understanding of racism, and experience working with other races to share that experience with students.”

Theme 6: The importance of multimodal education. The final theme that emerged from the data regarded the strategic importance of different types of educational activities used to engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. All eight participants discussed the importance of utilizing different modes of education during discussions about race. The most commonly reported aspects of multimodal education were: class discussions, presentations, games or activities, multimedia, reading, and writing.

Class discussions. As discussed during the importance of interpersonal interaction, all eight participants used class discussions as a strategy for engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Class discussions were reported to take place in the classroom or on online discussion boards. In-class discussions were conducted in either small groups or in large groups, although several participants discussed having students begin talking about race in smaller groups and then move into larger groups. In-class discussions gave students the opportunity to see each other face-to-face and to, in some ways, realize the impact how they spoke. Several participants noted that White students tended to be more aware of the language they used when they were in a class discussion with students of color. Participants mentioned

that while language awareness could be a positive aspect of in-class discussions, they also mentioned that it made it harder to assess the awareness or growth of White students. For this reason, Molly and Sybill suggested the importance of having online class discussions. Online class discussions allowed students to interact with material more freely when they were “not in the same room” as their classmates (Molly). Sybill also mentioned the importance of giving students who did not necessarily like to speak in class the opportunity to have discussions with their classmates in an online format, which allowed them to be reflective before responding.

Class discussions were reported to be a pivotal strategy in helping White students hear about racial experiences and realities different from their own. In this way, White preservice teachers could learn from each other and from students of color through discussions. Sybill reported often using class discussions to diffuse tense situations that came up during discussions about race. She said she

throw[s] it back to the class and let them discuss it, or let them kind of disagree, so that if someone says something kind of outrageous, [she'll] say, ‘Ok, so what does everybody else think? Does anybody have a different opinion?’ And pretty much someone is gonna say, ‘Well, but what about.’

Class discussions were an important part of participants’ strategies in helping White preservice teachers interact critically and reflectively in social situations.

Presentations. Several participants utilized presentations as a way to engage White preservice teachers in conversation focused on race. One strategy for utilizing presentations was for students to conduct research and then present that research to classmates. Dora and Lily both assigned presentations to their students regarding something specifically related to race as a way to introduce topics or disseminate information. For example, Lily reported that because her

students tended to not have a grasp on geography or history, she assigned historical “social studies-like” presentations. These presentations gave White students a more well-rounded context when they interacted with racially diverse students. Dora also assigned students presentations to help students learn about historical discrimination. Penelope and Molly both used presentations as ways for students to reflect on their own race and culture and to communicate it with other students. Presentations gave students the ability to participate in their own learning and to be responsible for sharing information with the rest of the class. Assigning presentations were useful for both personal and informational reflection and gave White preservice teachers the opportunity to learn and talk about race in different ways.

Games or activities. Games or activities were reported to be helpful during discussions about race because they helped students interact both with each other as well as with content relating to race. In the online focus group, Molly reported games to be an important aspect of multimodal education because “there is a need to build trust and engage with each other in both playful and oppressive-focused ‘games’ before tackling actual situations.” Molly utilized games and game-like activities, which then turned into lessons or introductions for other aspects of race-related conversations. Likewise, Lily had students create a diversity quilt made up with individual squares explaining each student’s diversity. According to Lily, the diversity quilt was an impactful activity because it helped to bring up aspects of diversity in the class students were not normally aware of. Ginny reported using games or activities to help students engage with each other and to loosen up before engaging in more difficult discussions about race. Ginny categorized her games and activities according to risk. Lower-risk activities were used towards the beginning of the semester and the more high-risk activities were used towards the end of the semester.

Several participants used online cultural competency quizzes to engage their students in conversation focused on race. Both Lily and Luna reported using online cultural competency quizzes as activities for students to participate in. Ginny utilized Harvard University's (2011) "Project Implicit" quizzes online to help introduce students to the concept of implicit bias. Ron used activities in class to help students physically and kinesthetically interact with content on race. Ron said,

It's one thing, of course, to tell students about the history of structural racism and another thing to show them. One of the ways that I help my students wrap their heads around this issue is to use maps to investigate Robert Moses' "racist infrastructure." . . . Although it is helpful to discuss White privilege in more abstract terms, I have found that students' eyes often well up with understanding when they can literally put their fingers on a map and measure that "distance" [between White beaches and communities of color] in actual miles.

Activities were also used to close the gap between student's cognitive understanding and their emotional experiences. Participants reported using games or activities that imitated or modeled experiences of people of color, discrimination, or additional race content. Not only did activities and games assist White preservice teachers in physically and emotionally experiencing examples of issues related to race, they also allowed professors to debrief and mitigate those experiences. For example, Molly had her students play a game where they each had their own sounds and tried to convince other students to start using their sounds and stop using their own sounds. After the game was completed, she asked, "What do you see - what are the connections you see between this and race, class, and gender in our society?" She commented that games are "also . . . part of doing the harder stuff. That [students have] let [their] guard down. And [they have]

shown up.” Games and activities played an important role in students beginning to interact with each other and create relationships, and they also played an important role in introducing and modeling race-focused content.

Multimedia. Seven of the eight participants reported using multimedia during discussions about race. Like with games and activities, participants reported using multimedia to introduce students to topics related to race and to give them information. The most commonly reported type of multimedia were videos. Particularly common in the data was the use of documentaries about historical issues related to race. Sybill reported using the PBS (2003) documentary “Race: The Power of an Illusion,” particularly chapter 3 “The House We Built,” to introduce her students to the difference between wealth and income. Sybill noted that once her students understood the difference between wealth and income, they then had a better understanding of White privilege. She noted pairing this documentary with her family’s own experience with housing and White privilege was particularly effective. Participants reported the value of historical and informative documentaries because they tended to give new and impactful information for White students. Dora, for example, reported using historical documentaries to discuss race issues related to court decisions and immigration.

Other participants utilized TED Talk videos to share with their students to introduce conversations. Several participants specifically mentioned using Chimamanda Adichie's “Danger of a Single Story” (TED, 2009) to introduce their White preservice teachers to different perspectives and the reality of plural experiences. Ron also used sitcom videos to help engage his White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. He reported that his “students seemed to appreciate the subversion of Fifties-style sitcoms paired with more contemporary ‘woke’ voices.” Molly used the podcast “Seeing White” (Scene on Radio, 2017) in conjunction

with DiAngelo's (2018) *White Fragility* saying, "The podcast 'Seeing White' [2017] . . . alongside the book *White Fragility* [2018] allowed my students to see some of the more invisible (to them) structures at play." All seven of the eight participants who reported using multimedia reported using multiple types of multimedia to engage their students.

Reading. All eight participants reported assigning reading for their students to do in order to engage White preservice teachers in conversations about race. Molly noted the limitations of traditional reading and writing in engaging White students, but did find value in pairing readings and writings with other modes of education. She reported pairing traditional reading and writing with other modes of education engages emotion and experience in addition to intellect. McIntosh's (1989) text was the most commonly reported reading participants used to discuss race with their White students. Lily noted McIntosh's (1989) text was effective because it was old but still applicable. Both Lily and Ron noted the (White) flesh-colored Band-Aid was the most impactful aspect of McIntosh's (1989) list for their White preservice teachers because it was a physical representation of something they could personally relate to. Luna and Dora discussed the importance of reading texts from the perspectives of people of color, yet Sybill and Ginny reported students being skeptical of authors of color being biased.

Ginny reported her students struggling with reading academic texts and thus used other modes of education to mitigate textual information. The majority of participants also mentioned pairing reading with other forms of interaction, the most common being writing reflections or in-class discussions. While Ron assigned specific texts to his students, he also gave them the opportunity to find their own texts. He reported this to be effective because it gave students the ability to take ownership finding texts about racial diversity. The majority of participants reported mitigating and facilitating information from texts with writing assignments or in-class

discussions because it gave students opportunities to make personal connections to their own lives.

Writing. Writing, such as journal entries or reflection responses, was most often reported to be used as a way for students to engage with material in private and reflective ways. Writing was reported to give White preservice teachers the opportunity to interact with difficult or challenging information about race in private or personal writing. Sybill reported writing to be helpful both for students who did not necessarily like to share in class and for “allowing opportunity for written reflection sometimes helps push past the silence” that could accompany discussions about race. Penelope and Lily utilized journal writing at the end of class discussions to give students the opportunity to privately interact with content and discussions that take place during class. Participants assigned writing for students to interact with researching and synthesizing information rather than just reflecting. Additionally, writing was reported to be a way for participants to assess students’ growth and development throughout the semester. Participants reported that reflections were the best assessments for how students interacted with and grew from the conversations and content about race.

Chapter 4 Summary

The objective of this qualitative single case study was to explore how White professors teaching diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. This chapter included a description of the case study sample, the research methodology and data analysis procedures, and a summary and presentation of data findings. The analyzed data indicated that professors’ experiences engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race were impacted by White students’ backgrounds, their superficiality in thinking and talking about race, and student responses during conversations

about race. The analyzed data additionally indicated participants utilized multiple strategies to encourage White students to interact in discussions focused on race. Professors reported structuring the course content and activities, engaging White preservice teachers in interactions, and utilizing multimodal education as effective strategies during conversations about race. Chapter 5 will provide interpretation of the reported findings as well as implications and recommendation for future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

Introduction

This qualitative single case study explored how White professors teaching diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. While much of the previous literature has explored how White preservice teachers engage in discussions about race, fewer studies have focused on the professors responsible for discussing race with White preservice teachers. This research study, therefore, fills a gap in previous literature on White professors and diversity-focused education. This final chapter presents a summary and discussion of the study results as well as how the results connect to previous existing literature regarding diversity-focused education. This chapter will also describe the limitations of the study as well as the theoretical, practical, and policy implications of the research, and provide recommendations for further research.

Summary of the Results

The purpose of this study was to explore how White professors of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs experienced and engaged in conversations about race with White preservice teachers. Two research subquestions guided this study. The first research subquestion explored how White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced the process of engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. The second research subquestion explored the strategies White professors of diversity-focused courses used in conversations focused on race and how effective they perceived those strategies to be.

Because this study explored an intersection of experiences with race, this study was framed by a combination of three theories: social constructionism, CRT, and CWS. Social constructionism theorists assert that combined and communal interactions and experiences create

societal norms and ideologies (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Sommers-Flanagan & Sommers-Flanagan, 2012). The norms and ideologies created and reified through different structures within society are then deemed objective rather than relative (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). The theory of social constructionism also includes the assertion that individuals, often subconsciously, conform to previously constructed realities and norms, internalizing and passing them on to future generations (Serge, 2016). CRT theorists assert that the constructed, conformed to, and reified societal ideologies and norms are ones that maintain White hegemony and White normativity (Harris, 2012; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1998). CWS theorists maintain that while White hegemony and White normativity cannot be destroyed, they can be interrupted and weakened (Guess, 2006; Sleeter, 2016). While much of the previous literature regarding diversity-focused education has focused on White teachers or White preservice teachers, there is little research on those expected to interrupt the replication of Whiteness in preservice teachers. The replication of White normativity in the educational system in general and in White preservice teachers in specific calls for exploration into the experiences of professors regarding Whiteness and the strategies used to interrupt it.

Research has reported manifestations of White normativity and racial inequity in the school system. For instance, it has been reported that high proportions of students of color, in comparison to their White counterparts, are disciplined and placed in behavioral and cognitive inclusion classes. It has also been reported that low proportions of students of color, in comparison to their White counterparts, are placed in enrichment programs (Anderson, 2013; Walker, 2011). Previous research has additionally shown many White teachers and preservice teachers maintain and reify White normativity (Nelson & Guerra, 2014; Picower, 2009). The maintenance of White normativity, which results in racial inequity in school systems, is

problematic not only because of the increasing number of students of color, but also because it reifies White normativity in White students (Goodman, 2018). Previous research has found White preservice teachers exhibiting socially constructed ideologies regarding students of color through stereotypes, bias, and deficit thinking as well as the inability and unwillingness to discuss race (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Durham-Barnes, 2015). This research suggests a major factor contributing to the reification of White normativity in White preservice teachers is a lack of racial awareness. Sybill, for example, said,

These freshmen coming in need to learn about diversity because they're coming from sheltered environments . . . [and] the ed[ucation] students, obviously, have to be prepared to go into a diverse education setting. And they can't do that if they've never reflected . . . but their first idea of multiculturalism is kind of very uncritical.

In previous literature, White teachers and preservice teachers were reported to be unaware of the ways in which race impacts and positions society (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Dunn et. al, 2014). The few studies that have explored professors of diversity-focused courses reported White professors struggling with their own racial identity as they attempted to engage White students in conversations about race (Gayles et al., 2010; Gordon, 2005). Professors of diversity-focused courses, whether White or non-White, have also been reported to express frustration over a lack of pedagogical strategies with which to discuss race with White students (Galman et al., 2010; Gorski, 2016). There is, then, significant value in exploring the experiences of the professors tasked to recognize and challenge White preservice teachers' socially constructed ideologies specifically concerning race.

This qualitative single case study included three aspects of data collection: reflection responses, one-on-one interviews, and an online asynchronous focus group. Participants were

first asked to respond to two researcher-generated reflection prompts. The reflection responses focused on how participants' experienced discussing race with White preservice teachers as well as what strategies participants used during discussions about race. Upon completion of the reflection responses, each participant met with the researcher for a one-on-one semistructured interview lasting between 60–90 minutes. Once all interviews were complete, participants engaged in a week-long asynchronous online focus group containing two threads. The first thread focused on participants' experiences engaging White preservice teachers in conversations about race, and the other focused on the strategies participants used in those conversations. By utilizing continuous analysis (Creswell, 2012), the researcher was able to identify patterns throughout the data quickly and use those patterns in future interactions with participants. Both the reflection response and the asynchronous focus group focused primarily on participant-chosen experiences and strategies to discuss. The one-on-one interview, however, included the researcher's semistructured thematic questions, which focused on participants' backgrounds and course curriculum in addition to their experiences and strategies.

White students' backgrounds. Participants experienced White preservice teachers' backgrounds to be a significant factor in how they discussed race. Participants reported that many, if not most, of their White preservice teachers came from racially homogenous backgrounds. Participants reported that it was more difficult to discuss race with younger or undergraduate students than with older or graduate students and postulated that this was due to maturity, age, and limited life experiences with diversity. The lack of interaction with racial diversity in combination with strong conservative political leanings made discussing race with White preservice teachers more challenging. White students who had racially homogeneous backgrounds did not have experience thinking about, talking about, or interacting with racial

diversity, which resulted in resistance and negative responses, at least initially, during discussions about race.

White preservice teachers' superficiality. White students' lack of experiences thinking and talking about race hindered their ability to critically participate in conversations about race during diversity-focused courses. Specifically, the lack of experience thinking and talking about race and interacting with racial diversity led to superficiality in reflecting on or discussing race. Furthermore, White students' limited experience with racial diversity obstructed their ability to see race an impacting factor in society. Participants reported White preservice teachers' superficiality specifically concerning their ability to move beyond pity to empathy, beyond awareness of race issues to advocacy for race issues, and beyond concepts of global race issues to local race issues. Pity, rather than empathy, reinforced White preservice teachers' beliefs that society is meritocratic, reinforcing the idea that a person's success is directly influenced by individual choices rather than structural factors. Awareness was a positive response, but was superficial in comparison to advocacy. Many participants reported their desire for White preservice teachers to be able to identify their positionality in society and how positionality can be used in advocacy or allyship in anti-racist education. Finally, participants noted it was easier for White preservice teachers to identify global issues related to race as opposed to local issues related to race. The ability to identify race issues or to have more regard for race issues, such as immigration or bilingual education, was higher while in a global context than in a local context.

White preservice teachers' responses. White preservice teachers, at least initially, responded negatively to conversations or information about race. White preservice teachers were reported to be initially skeptical that texts are biased against White people. Particularly, White preservice teachers viewed authors of color as biased. White preservice teachers were also

initially skeptical of their own implication in structural racism and their positionality in society. Participants believed this was mostly due to their lack of experience in talking about or interacting with issues related to race. White preservice teachers were also reported to respond to discussions about race with silence, though silence was not always reported to indicate a negative or resistant response. While some White students used silence to avoid discussing race, other White students' silence was due to introversion and insecurity. Politeness was also reported to be a negative response and used by White preservice teachers in deflecting conversations about race. Participants found both silence and politeness to be particularly difficult to engage with because both responses limited the ability to assess students' awareness and growth. Silence and politeness also created difficulty for participants to identify and then discuss problematic beliefs, biases, or stereotypes.

However, while all participants reported some White preservice teachers responding negatively, at least initially, to discussions about race, they also reported White preservice teachers' positive responses. In fact, several participants mentioned experiencing more positive responses than negative responses. Many White preservice teachers, especially after being given the time and opportunity to process through initial cognitive dissonance, responded with openness and empathy to both information and conversations about race. Given that many White students were unaware of race as a factor in society or the continuation of racial inequity, they found information about race shocking, but not necessarily incorrect. Empathy was commonly reported to be a positive response from White preservice teachers, particularly after participating in discussions and activities illuminating racial inequity. However, while empathy was a positive response and a beginning aspect in racial awareness, several participants noted empathy was not and should not be the final goal. White preservice teachers could and have

expressed empathy towards racial inequity without relating it to personal position or advocacy for their future racially diverse students.

The importance of structure. Preparing well in advance for conversations focused on race with White preservice teachers was an important strategy for participants. Because race was such a difficult topic for White students to discuss, participants reported the necessity of structuring each course as a whole as well as structuring specific activities within the course. Courses were structured to make conversations focused on race easier for White students to engage in. Some participants structured courses to give White preservice teachers breaks from the challenge of reflecting on and discussing race while others structured courses to scaffold or clarify information. Participants also structured activities within courses to make discussions about race more accessible and impactful. For instance, some participants incorporated fun and silly activities with more difficult activities to give students breaks throughout the semester. Other participants structured activities based on risk or sensitivity.

The importance of interaction. Because so many White preservice teachers were reported to lack exposure to and experience with information about race and racial diversity, participants emphasized the importance of giving opportunities for interactions. Interpersonal interactions gave White preservice teachers opportunities to learn with other White students who were also learning about race for the first time. Additionally, interpersonal interactions gave White preservice teachers the ability to learn from the experiences and opinions of students of color. Because White preservice teachers were reported to often not think about, talk about, or interact with race before college, in-class discussions with classmates of color were valuable interactions for them. Online discussions were noted to be valuable in giving students more time and privacy to reflect on race-related information and experiences. Additionally, out-of-class

interactions with racial diversity was a key aspect of engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. It is important to note, however, that mitigating, facilitating, and reflecting both on information about race and experiences with racial diversity was necessary in order to work through and challenge rather than reify biases and stereotypes.

Intrapersonal interactions were reported to be a way in which White students could critically reflect on issues related to race in their own time and on their own terms, particularly for more introverted, shy, or insecure students. Intrapersonal interactions, such as essays or reflective journals, were useful to scaffold and make personal connections to race-related information. Participants often utilized private reflections as a means to assess student growth and development and to directly and privately address problematic beliefs and comments. Because there was often a large gap between White student's experiential and intellectual connections to information about race, intrapersonal interactions provided a medium to explore new and often challenging content.

Finally, participants reported their own interactions with White preservice teachers to be a significant aspect of discussing race. All of the participants noted that openness about their personal stories and journeys through racial awareness was invaluable for White preservice teachers. Telling personal stories was noted to be particularly beneficial for participants because they shared the same racial identity as their White preservice teachers. Many participants reported that it was an advantage that they were White because White students, unfortunately, were more willing to discuss race with those who also identify as White. However, several participants did qualify that the advantage of being White was only beneficial if discussions of White normativity and Whiteness were included in course content. Molly stated,

[I think it is a benefit] that I can own [my Whiteness] in a way that we're not just talking about other people. We're talking about ourselves. If you take a stance where Whiteness is a part of what you're learning about in a diversity class, then that is an advantage when you have White students.

The importance of multimodal education. Finally, participants reported that using and pairing different modes of education during conversations about race was particularly effective. Class discussions were the most commonly reported strategy used in discussing race with White students because they increased student interaction and allowed students to learn from each other. Discussions were often used as facilitating and reflective activities after students read a text or watched a documentary. Presentations were reported to be useful in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race because they helped students find and analyze their own research about race-related information and utilize peer instruction.

Games and activities were commonly used both to introduce information or discussions about race and to lighten conversation before or after discussions about race. Games and activities provided participants opportunities to discuss race with White preservice teachers in personal, kinesthetic, and emotionally-connective ways. Participants reported that while traditional reading and writing limit engagement to the intellect, games, activities, presentations, and multimedia forms of education could help White students connect more personally and emotionally. Videos were reported to be used to introduce information or topics and to help students visualize issues. Participants used historical documentaries, TED Talk videos, movies, and podcasts to give students information and as a jumping point to discuss race. Multimedia was reported to be a significant mode of education, particularly when it was paired with other modes of education such as class discussions or reflective writing.

Reading was commonly used to give students information about race-related issues and to introduce topics. Participants used textbooks as well as shorter articles to work through the process of talking about race by showing other perspectives and experiences. Reading was commonly paired with both class discussions and writing. Writing was used both in interpersonal interactions and intrapersonal interactions, such as reflective journaling or essay writing. Participants noted student writing is additionally useful as a way to assess student growth and development and provide opportunities for participants to communicate privately and reflectively with students.

Discussion of the Results

White Preservice Teachers' Backgrounds

While nuance always exists, the results of this study suggest students' previous background experiences impacted the ways they engaged in discussions about race. Compared to White preservice teachers with racially diverse experiences, White preservice teachers who lacked racially diverse interactions experienced more challenges and more cognitive dissonance when talking about race. Negative responses were a result of students' lack of exposure to race-related information or encounters with racial diversity. In particular, White preservice teachers who grew up in racially homogenous and politically conservative families struggled to think deeply and talk critically about race. Repeated second-hand stories and arguments, such as anti-immigration, anti-affirmative action, or reverse racism were examples of superficiality in White students' discussions. Terms such as "sheltered" (Sybill, Ginny), "protected" (Dora), and "not exposed" (Ginny, Sybill, Penelope) were used when describing White preservice teachers' experiences with racial diversity. These terms seemed to indicate purposeful decisions by family and community members to limit interactions with racial diversity.

Given that diversity-focused courses were reported to be the first time many White preservice teachers were expected to think and talk about race, participants had to first teach basic information, such as terminology, history, and geography. Only after scaffolding introductory information could participants move White preservice teachers into deeper and more critical conversations about race. Because White preservice teachers often misunderstood concepts relating to race, it was important to provide introductory and clarifying information. Thus, it was valuable for participants to spend time to define and clarify concepts such as White privilege, affirmative action, colorblindness, meritocracy, wealth, and income, particularly because many of these concepts tended to evoke resistance or discomfort in White students.

According to participants, as White preservice teachers were exposed to race-related content and personal experiences with racial diversity, they became more aware of the reality of current racial inequity, structural racism, their own racial identity, and the implications of their racial identity on their future racially diverse classrooms. For this reason, it would be beneficial for teacher education programs to require more than one diversity-focused course with one course focusing on introductory material and another focusing on critical discussions about race and experiences with racial diversity. An additional introductory diversity-focused course could increase White preservice teachers' maturation and critical engagement with race later in teacher preparation coursework or field experiences.

Required Time and Space

Given White preservice teachers' unawareness of and inexperience with race, it was important for them to have both time and space to explore information related to race and experience racial diversity. It was important for White preservice teachers to learn about and discuss race in ways that minimized the isolation, guilt, and shame often connected to race,

which took time. Many participants reported the importance of utilizing an entire semester, or longer, to engage with White preservice teachers in discussions about and experiences with race. Sybill noted,

The good thing about the multicultural class [compared to a workshop or seminar] is that [they] have the whole semester, because I think that what happens often is when you try to do this too quickly, it doesn't give students time to reflect and think.

In order for discussions about race to be beneficial and impactful, participants needed enough time to engage White students' cognitive dissonance. Upon learning new information about race or participating in new experiences with racial diversity, White preservice teachers needed substantial time to reflect on and find personal connections. Thus, it was important for White preservice teachers to be introduced to thinking and talking about race before they could be expected to critically participate in discussions and interactions. The findings suggest the expectation for preservice teachers to take one diversity-focused course, in which a wide spectrum of diversity issues is covered, is impractical and insufficient to prepare inexperienced and unexposed White preservice teachers to teach in racially diverse settings.

Given that there are so many aspects of diversity that preservice teachers need to be competent in, infusing race-related information into program curriculum would give White preservice teachers' additional time and space to become comfortable hearing and learning about race before they are expected to critically engage in discussions or reflective assignments. Additionally, infused content related to race throughout program curriculum could decrease the compartmentalization of issues related to race. Rather than race being identified only as a diversity-focused issue, it could be identified as practical for both personal and pedagogical use in future classrooms.

Interactions and Experiences

Interaction with classmates. White students learning collaboratively with classmates offered two positive impacts in conversations about race. The first was that White preservice teachers could experience learning and cognitive dissonance alongside of other White preservice teachers who were also new to thinking and talking about race. Molly, in particular, noted the importance of White students being able to feel like they were not alone in learning about race and becoming aware of their racial identity. Additionally, it was beneficial when White preservice teachers were able to learn from their classmates of color. The opportunity for White students to learn from their classmates of color was one of the most commonly reported factors in White students becoming racially aware and literate. It was important for there to be time and intentionality in diversity-focused courses to give students of color, if they felt comfortable, the opportunity to share their experiences of race and how race has impacted the way they experience living in society.

Off-site interactions with racial diversity. In addition to learning from and interacting with classmates of color, it was highly beneficial for White preservice teachers to have facilitated experiences in racially diverse settings. Racially diverse experiences increased and expedited White students' maturation in critically thinking and talking about race. Experiences in racially diverse settings also provided positive critical confrontation with stereotypes and biases and increase racial awareness. For example, in a journal reflection provided by Ron, a White student wrote,

This assignment made me realize how little interaction I have with those who are different from me. It also made me realize how I don't necessarily think about interacting with someone different . . . I felt as though by doing this I was more aware of

my interactions and cognizant of those around me . . . that opened my eyes to the fact that I don't really pay attention to the differences between people, but maybe I should because I could learn how to use those differences for the betterment of my students.

Off-site experiences in racially diverse settings were such an important aspect of thinking and talking about race for White preservice teachers that the participants who could not require experiences in racially diverse settings wished they could. Luna, for example, said,

We have to go in to find [racially diverse populations] in the community. And go to where they are. And that's where I think you have to bridge the gap with them. And I wish I could take my undergrads. We don't do any type of field experience with my undergrads.

All of the participants in this study noted the necessity of aiding White preservice teachers' maturation with and reflection of race with off-site sustained experiences in racially diverse settings. If White preservice teachers do not have experiences with racial diversity, but will teach in future classrooms with racially diverse students, it follows that required experiences in racially diverse educational settings would be beneficial.

Interactions with professors. Finally, because the participants in this study were racially aware, they were deliberate in and careful about how they interacted with White preservice teachers in both discussions about race and interactions with racial diversity. The majority of the participants reported sharing personal stories and experiences of their own racial awareness and personal development in racial literacy. Participants found it effective to help their White preservice teachers make personal and emotional connections to concepts related to race. Every participant reported using stories from his or her own life as a way to show and model personal and practical connections. Professors of diversity-focused courses could ease

and mitigate discussions about race by engaging personally and openly with students.

Approximately half of the participants found it beneficial to discuss their own White identity and the ways in which being White had impacted them or impacted their students of color.

Professors who were White and racially aware helped White students make personal connections to race-related issues by sharing their own experiences with racial diversity and stories about their development of racial awareness.

However, it is significant to note that because all participants in this study were racially aware, interactions and experiences were more intentionally facilitated and mitigated. It is likely the professors who agreed to participate in this study did so because the recruitment email explicitly mentioned race as the topic of the study. If race was not explicitly mentioned as the study topic, it is possible that professors of diversity-focused courses who were not racially aware might have participated. A different group of participants with varied levels and stages of racial awareness and literacy would have likely impacted the outcomes of White preservice teachers' interactions and experiences.

Mitigated and Facilitated Information and Experiences

While information about race and interactions and experiences with racial diversity were found to be significant in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race, results also indicate that information, interactions, and experiences must be mitigated and facilitated. Participants reported that singular experiences with racial diversity that were not facilitated or mitigated reinforced stereotypes, deficit thinking, and bias. Penelope said experiences with racial diversity could be significant “with meaningful pre-readings, journaling, post-reflections, etc. [However] so much hope is placed in these brief experiences when they

often end up being counterproductive, emphasizing the ‘White savior’ perspective or solidifying deficit thinking.” Ginny expressed similar concerns saying,

If you have an urban school experience that’s not translated or mitigated somehow, [White students are] leaving either with, ‘Wow, I’m never teaching there because oh my God, that class is out of control, those kids.’ You’re gonna leave with that and go, ‘Man, urban environments are full of bad kids; those black kids are terrible.’

Isolated experiences, when not debriefed or facilitated, could be internalized and reified to confirm socially constructed understandings of race and of race as irrelevant to society.

According to the participants, then, it was necessary to intentionally and deliberately deconstruct stereotypes, deficit thinking, and biases. Facilitation and mitigation of information and experiences were reported to be achieved through activities, discussions, and reflections.

Results suggest that without imposed external mitigation and facilitation, White preservice teachers did not question their socially constructed knowledge or views on race or race-related issues. For example, Lily said, “I don’t think [White preservice teachers] internalize [information about and experiences with race] it unless you kind of force it.” Deliberate and facilitated information and experiences with race were important because they offered opportunities for professors of diversity-focused courses to help White preservice teachers push beyond cognitive dissonance or negative responses into critical thinking and reflection. So, while White preservice teachers often initially responded negatively to information about race, they could progress past resistance through journals or debriefing discussions. Accordingly, participants noted that information about race and experiences with racial diversity should be carefully and deliberately facilitated to help White preservice teachers work through new, challenging, and uncomfortable concepts and experiences.

Multimodal Interaction

Using multimodal education was an important strategy in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race because it helped bridge the cognitive and emotional gap of White students' inexperience with race. Findings suggest the more personally and emotionally White preservice teachers connected to content and discussions about race, the more understanding and awareness took place. Finding creative and multimodal ways to engage White students beyond cognition was reported to be significant in White preservice teachers becoming racially literate.

Class discussions and interactions were an essential aspect of multimodal education because they worked to interrupt many White preservice teachers' experiences of not talking directly about race. There were benefits to both in-class and online discussions, and it benefited White preservice teachers when professors provided both options. In-class discussions were beneficial because they provided opportunities for White students to think and talk about race. Due to the intentionality of the participants, White preservice teachers were unable to avoid discussions about race. Online discussions, on the other hand, provided time and space for students to respond more thoughtfully and more honestly. Class discussions were valuable because they created a social context where White preservice teachers learned not only from professors, but also from each other. Particularly impactful in class discussions was the opportunity for White students to learn from their classmates of color. It was productive for professors of diversity-focused courses to offer different types of class discussions for students to more holistically engage in challenging content and conversations about race.

While class discussions and interactions were the most commonly reported forms of multimodal education, presentations, games and activities, multimedia, reading, and writing were

also reported to be beneficial. Because it was impactful when students had a sense of ownership over their own learning, projects and presentations related to race were strategic ways to engage White preservice teachers in reflection as well as in peer-to-peer instruction. Games and activities were also reported to be useful in discussions about race because they assisted students in cultivating relationships within the class as well as feeling comfortable and invested. Molly said, “I need to make sure that everyone in this room is as comfortable as possible coming back . . . it doesn’t help us if [they don’t] feel like [they] can [be honest].” Similarly, Sybill said, “I don’t think there’s any such thing as a safe environment when you’re talking about [race], but I do try to make students feel like they’re going to be respected and no one is gonna single them out.” In addition to making diversity-focused courses more approachable, games and activities were also helpful in introducing race-related concepts and facilitating emotional and personal connections. Games and activities that engaged students emotionally and physically rather than only cognitively provided more holistic avenues for White students to work through race-related cognitive dissonance.

Giving opportunities for White preservice teachers to reflect critically, both privately and publicly, on content and discussions about race was an important part of multimodal education. Traditional reading and writing offered ways for students to engage with information and used singularly offer limited impact on White preservice teachers, but when paired with other modes of education are significantly effective. Multimedia, readings, and presentations were used to share different perspectives and experiences with White preservice teachers, which encouraged them to acknowledge and value plural realities. Writing, when paired as a reflective strategy to respond to information and experience, gave White students the ability to interact with and create personal connections to content and experiences around race.

Reflective writing was a useful strategy for participants to engage privately with White preservice teachers, asking deeper and more critical questions and holding them accountable for problematic assumptions or comments. Ron said, “What I’ve found [in engaging students] is the simplest thing is actually responding to them. If a problematic [statement] or microaggressions, for example, come up in their reflections, I’ll let them know.” Writing was also indicated to be a useful form of assessment by providing professors more holistic information about students’ receptions and responses to discussions about race. For example, multiple participants reported assuming White preservice teachers’ silence in class was a form of resistance. After reading those students’ reflection responses, however, they realized those students were shy or insecure, not resistant. Lily said, “I find that . . . some [White preservice teachers] are more willing to write their thoughts rather than speak up against the more vocal individuals in class. I believe these students are still searching for their voices in the world.”

In order to effectively discuss race with White preservice teachers, multimodal education should be used throughout diversity-focused courses. While reading and writing can be a productive means of educating in traditional non-diversity-focused teacher education courses, results suggest professors should use more personal and experiential modes of education in diversity-focused courses, specifically during discussions about race. Specifically, professors of diversity-focused courses should work to pair different modes of education to employ different facets of learning and experiences. Opportunities should be given for students to both absorb content as well as to produce reflective connections.

Challenges for Professors

Time and energy. Both the uniqueness of the content in diversity-focused courses and the ways that White preservice teachers struggle to engage with content and discussions about

race present challenges to professors. The primary challenge was a result of the difficulty race, as a topic, presented to White preservice teachers. White preservice teachers' inexperience with race and resistance to discussing race resulted in participants spending more time and energy preparing for, teaching, and evaluating diversity-focused courses than other education courses. Ginny said, "When I teach that [diversity-focused] course, I feel like all my waking hours and at night lying in bed, I'm thinking about, 'How do I help them to see this?'" Participants constantly evaluated and modified activities, readings, and assignments to make content about race more impactful and accessible for White preservice teachers. Because of White preservice teachers' different levels of experience with and knowledge about race, participants had to teach and engage White students differently based on levels of awareness and literacy. It was challenging for participants to move slowly and deliberately through race-related content with unaware and inexperienced White students while simultaneously working to critically engage those who are aware and racially literate.

The gap between racially illiterate and literate White preservice teachers, however, could be decreased by the infusion of race-related content into teacher education curriculum. Multiple participants reported the importance of and benefit to incorporating content related to race into earlier education courses. Race-related issues infused into teacher education curriculum could provide White students time and space to interact with information relating to race before being expected to critically reflect or engage in discussions. Sybill noted the benefit of incorporating racial identity theories and stages in earlier courses "because then . . . [she] can kind of pull it out of their long-term memories, and [she] know[s] they've already talked about it and it makes it a little . . . easier for them." Because Ron's multicultural practicum was a one-credit course, he mentioned the importance of incorporating content about race into other education courses. Ron

noted that his teacher education program has worked to alleviate the awareness and literacy gap between White students by being “a little more conscious in other courses.” Results suggest incorporating race-related content into other teacher education courses made it easier for professors because it decreased knowledge gaps between racially aware and unaware students. Incorporation of race-related content into teacher education curriculum could also provide White preservice teachers time to process and interact with basic information prior to a course focused on diversity.

Cognitive dissonance and resistance. The other challenge the uniqueness of diversity-focused courses presented to White professors was engaging White students in sensitive discussions. While other courses in teacher education programs focused on academic and practical content, diversity-focused courses focused on engaging students in ways that result, hopefully, in the transformation of socially constructed presuppositions. Approximately half of the participants reported race to be the most difficult topic to discuss with White preservice teachers. Professors of diversity-focused courses have experienced being expected to engage negative responses productively to result in understanding, empathy, critical reflection, and advocacy. The cognitive dissonance White students experienced, manifesting in silence, politeness, denial, or skepticism, was a unique experience for diversity-focused professors and required additional professional and personal development. Hence, professors need to be able to anticipate and engage defensive responses and have clear assessment methods to determine racial awareness and literacy. It would be beneficial for professors who teach diversity-focused courses and who focus on issues relating to race to receive personal and professional development in dialogue and engagement strategies for resistance and cognitive dissonance.

Racial identity. While White professors of diversity-focused courses were responsible for confronting White students' implicit bias and Whiteness ideologies, many reported the importance of confronting their own implicit bias and Whiteness ideologies as well. Six of the eight participants discussed the importance of their own racial literacy and racial self-awareness. Molly, for example, discussed the difficult and personal work towards racial awareness and literacy. Therefore, while White professors were expected to engage their White students in journeys of racial awareness and literacy, they also had to engage their own. Participants noted that it would have been easier for them to avoid critical discussions about race and the implication of race in education and society. However, participants reported intentionally and actively making space in class for discussions about race rather than avoiding them. However, it is important to note that the combination of the case study binding as well as the explicit disclosure of the study focusing on race likely impacted the results of the study. Participants who volunteered were likely those who intentionally include race in their diversity-focused courses. Conversely, like Gordon (2005) reported, those who did not include race in their diversity-focused courses, whether consciously or subconsciously, might not have seen the value in exploring race as an aspect of diversity-focused courses. Therefore, racially unaware and illiterate White professors of diversity-focused courses would likely not have participated in this study and if they had, the findings would likely have been different.

Content. As previously discussed, many of the participants noted that their teacher education programs required only one diversity-focused course for preservice teachers. In a practical sense, this meant participants had to teach a variety of diversity-focused topics, including race. The majority of the participants reported spending significant time on race because they personally believed it to be the most needed area of diversity development for preservice

teachers. The expectation that preservice teachers were able to sufficiently learn and interact with different diversity aspects in a single diversity-focused course, including confronting and working to deconstruct implicit racial bias, were reported to be impractical. Conversely, it seemed implausible for professors of diversity-focused courses to sufficiently engage students in multiple diversity-focused topics and have the time and energy needed to introduce content related to race and undertake the process of students' racial awareness development in a single course.

Discussion of the Results in Relation to the Literature

Whiteness and White Normativity

Like much of the previous literature, the results of this study indicated that White preservice teachers had very little experience with racial diversity, which hindered their ability to think and talk about race (Picower, 2009). The findings of this study further coincided with previous research findings that, due to White preservice teachers' racially homogenous backgrounds, diversity-focused courses were often the first time they were expected to talk about race (Bowman, 2009, 2010). Durham-Barnes (2015) found that 81% of participants grew up in racially homogenous communities and a third of the participants did not have opportunities to talk about race before entering college. A lack of racially diverse experiences caused White preservice teachers to enter teacher education programs using stereotypes and their own personal (White) behaviors and experiences as the standard by which they judged new information and experiences (Durham-Barnes, 2015; Picower, 2009).

Reified White normativity in White preservice teachers was reported both in previous research and in this study. Previous literature reported White preservice teachers' inability to define Whiteness or explain what their culture was because of the belief that their experiences

were universal (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Durham-Barnes, 2015). This study's results indicated similar findings. Luna, for example, said, "Every time I ask students, mostly on the undergrad level, to look at their culture or do a cultural autobiography, I get more questions: 'I don't know what my culture is,' 'I don't understand what culture is.'"

A significant factor of previous research reported White preservice teachers' exhibition of White normativity, which hindered White preservice teachers' ability to see the impact race has on society. Because White students had very little explicit experience with race impacting their lives, it was difficult for them to identify how it might impact someone else's (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Picower, 2009). Resulting from White normativity, White preservice teachers had also been reported to experience difficulty identifying structural racism (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Durham-Barnes, 2015; Picower, 2009). When encountering information that highlights structural racism and race as an influencing factor on society, White preservice teachers struggled with cognitive dissonance (Bowman, 2009; Bowman, 2010).

Difficulty with and Negative Responses to Conversations Focused on Race

Difficulty. Previous research studies reported White preservice teachers' difficulty with and negative responses towards conversations focused on race (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Dunn et al., 2014; Picower, 2009). Several studies reported White preservice teachers expressing feelings of guilt, which researchers found obstructed them from critical and reflective engagement (Durham-Barnes, 2015; Pollock et al., 2010). Because racism is often seen in a good/bad binary, any indication a White student could be seen as racist was significantly resisted (DiAngelo, 2016). This research study similarly indicated that White students often initially struggled with guilt and shame connected to discussions about race, which led to resistance. Participants also

noted that White preservice teachers sometimes hedged comments about race when classmates of color were present as to not say anything that appears racist.

While this research widely aligned with previous research findings on White preservice teachers' White normativity, struggle to identify structural racism, and difficulty with cognitive dissonance, it extended the literature by suggesting nuance and progression. The results of this study indicated that while White preservice teachers did exhibit White normativity, they were made aware of this and some were willing to confront and analyze it by the end of their diversity-focused course. For example, Penelope submitted a White student's reflection response, which read,

Normalization is something that came to mind for me often while reading this article (Touré & Thompson Dorsey, 2018). I think that this is the main reason why deconstructing and restructuring the racial frame of our society is so difficult—it is a concept that has been built and reinforced over a long period of time.

Similarly, this study's findings suggested that while initially grappling with the reality and implications of structural racism, White preservice teachers were open to the possibility of structural racism and willing to be made aware of it. Particularly, White preservice teachers more easily coped with the difficulty of discussing race and moved beyond negative responses when concepts were defined and clarified. Sybill, for example, said

[Defining the difference between income and wealth] is really effective because from there you can talk about White privilege, and they understand. If you don't do that, then they think that privilege means you're rich. "Well, I'm not privileged" . . . but they begin to see it in a different way and so then it becomes a little bit easier.

Likewise, this study found that White preservice teachers were able to grapple with and move past cognitive dissonance when participants intentionally and deliberately aided their development. While difficult and intentional effort was required, the results of this study suggest White preservice teachers were able to confront their cognitive dissonance and begin to work through it with mitigated and facilitated learning and experiences.

Negative responses. Much of this research study's findings coincided with previous literature reporting White preservice teachers' negative responses to discussions about race (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Picowwer, 2009; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). In previous research, White preservice teachers were reported to use defense mechanisms to avoid or disengage from discussions about race. This study's findings concurred with reports of White preservice teachers' negative responses, including reverse-racism discourse, minimization, and silence (Choi, 2008; DiAngelo, 2012; Picower, 2009).

However, as with White preservice students' difficulty in discussing race, this study found that while White preservice teachers initially struggled to see race impacting people's lives, once introduced to information or experiences that were debriefed and examined, they responded with openness and empathy. Almost all of the participants reported that White preservice teachers came to a point of awareness and understanding race as impacting people's experiences and that their experiences were not universal or objective. This study also deviated from previous research findings in terms of White preservice teachers' use of silence during discussions about race (LaDuke, 2009; Picower, 2009). While this study did find White preservice teachers' response to conversations focused on race included silence, it also found silence to be nuanced and, when analyzed and explored, did not always indicate resistance. Participants reported that sometimes White preservice teachers remained silent in class due to

introversion or insecurity, but critically reflected and engaged in private reflections and in online discussions. Sybill, in the focus group, stated,

While many White students in the class resisted notions of present-day racism through a variety of loud and often angry discourses, many were silent. At the time, their silence seemed like tacit agreement. When I gave them a chance to reflect in writing, however, I found that some of those silent White students disagreed with their more vocal friends, but hesitated to do so in public.

Pedagogical Strategies

Consistent with previous research, this study found several pedagogical strategies effective for engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Both in previous literature as well as in this research study, findings indicated one of the most effective means of engaging White students in content and discussions about race to be through class discussions and interactions (Gayes et al., 2015). Additionally, both previous literature and this research study suggested multimodal education as significantly important for White preservice teachers as they discuss race (Pollock et al., 2010).

Discussions and interactions. Previous literature varied on focusing class discussions on structural or personal racism. While Pimentel (2010) focused on structural racism as a strategy to diffuse and decrease White preservice teachers' defensiveness and resistance about race, Gayles et al. (2015) found direct discussion of personal aspects of racism to be effective. In this research study, the findings overwhelmingly suggested discussions about race were more effective when White preservice teachers were able to make personal connections to issues related to race. All eight participants in this research study reported deliberately providing students opportunities to find personal connections to issues related to race.

This research study concurred with previous literature that interactions and experiences with racial diversity were significant in aiding White students' participation in discussions about race. Gayles et al. (2015) reported that student-centered discussions were beneficial because they cultivated a learning environment where students could learn from their peers while they created and explored meaning and experiences together. Durham-Barnes (2015) reported the most critical discussions about race in her focus groups to be the groups that included both White participants and participants of color. The majority of participants in this research study also confirmed the most beneficial discussions about race take place when students of color were willing to share personal experiences about how their lives and identities differed from White students.

This research study also concurred with previous, though not substantial, literature that reported racially diverse experiences as influential in engaging White preservice teachers (Dunn et al., 2014). The majority of participants, if able, required preservice teachers to interact with racial diversity throughout the semester, and those who could not make such requirements lamented the loss. In fact, this study found racially diverse interactions and experiences to be such a large aspect of engaging White preservice teachers in thinking and talking about race that multiple participants noted that without sustained, mitigated, and facilitated experiences with racial diversity White students are not be able to critically reflect on or deeply discuss issues of race. Missing from previous literature, however, was a core finding of this study: mitigated and facilitated interactions with race-related information and racial diversity were crucial. This study found that if not mitigated and facilitated, racially diverse experiences and interactions with race-related information could be counterproductive and reify White normativity, stereotypes, and biases.

Multimodal education. Concurring with previous research, this study found the importance of utilizing multimodal education in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations about race. Previous literature reported the efficiency of using different modes of education, such as class discussions, personal reflection activities, interactions with racial diversity, projects and presentations, games, and multimedia, in order to more fully engage White preservice teachers in discussions about race (Dunn et al., 2014; Pollock, 2010; Warren, 2011; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). While this research study affirmed each of the previously reported pedagogical and engagement strategies, several additional pedagogical strategies and nuances were found as well. In particular, this study extended previous research by finding personal experiences and connections that engaged emotions to be the most successful. Molly, for example, utilized Boal's (1993) *Theater of the Oppressed*, which uses theater and theater games to create emotional ties to students' experiences with oppression and inquiry. Molly claimed, "There's something about the experience of it and the emotional part of it that really makes it possible to imagine other possibilities."

Professors' Racial Identity

Gayles et al. (2015) found that White preservice teachers' interaction with professors during conversations focused on race was dependent on the professor's social identity; White professors experienced less hostility and resistance than professors of color (Gayles et al., 2015). While this research study could not conclude the experiences of resistance and hostility of participants in comparison to professors of color, it did find that the majority of White professors believed that being White benefited them during discussions of race with White preservice teachers. Several participants qualified, however, that their racial identity was only beneficial

because they taught primarily White preservice teachers and because they chose to include content related to Whiteness.

In previous research, White professors of diversity-focused courses were reported to avoid discussions about race, focusing on safer and less sensitive diversity topics, such as gender and sexuality, language diversity, and ableism (Gordon, 2005). Both Gordon (2005) and Galman et al. (2010) reported their own struggle to regulate their White racial identity, which manifested in colorblindness ideology, limiting space for students of color to share, interrupting and avoiding race-related conversations, and not holding White students accountable for problematic race comments during class. Unlike Gordon (2005) and Galman et al. (2010), this study found participants to be keenly aware of their White racial identity and their implicit bias. Seven of the eight participants discussed the importance of their own continual journey through racial awareness and how consistent reevaluation and accountability of implicit bias impacted how they engaged with White students.

However, it is important to note that the research design likely impacted results. This research study specifically focused on race as a diversity-focused topic and explicitly stated such in the study recruitment email. Thus, those professors who volunteered to participate in the study likely would be those who intentionally devoted time and effort to race-related content. It is also important to note that more than 150 White professors of diversity-focused courses were contacted about participating in the study, though only 10 responded with positive interest with eight committing to the study. While many other factors influence the decision to participate in a research study, the focus on race might have been a factor in who participated in this particular study. Therefore, it is possible the explicit identification of race as the research topic skewed the

participant group towards those aware of White racial identity and engaged in interrupting Whiteness in themselves and in White preservice teachers.

Challenges for Professors

Much of the literature focusing on professors of diversity-focused courses reported the significant challenges they experienced due to the uniqueness of diversity-focused education (Galman et al., 2010; Gorski, 2012; Gorski, 2016). All previous literature exploring the experiences of diversity-focused professors reported the unique difficulties and challenges accompanied with teaching a diversity-focused course (Galman et al., 2010; Gordon, 2005; Gorski, 2012, 2016). This research study concurred with previous research that affirm the need for professional and personal development in order for diversity-focused courses to be effective.

Professional development. Previous researchers, particularly Gorski (2016) and Galman et al. (2010), reported the need for developed pedagogical strategies for incorporating content about race and engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race. While this study affirmed there was a plethora of strategies useful for discussing race with White students, it also found professors of diversity-focused courses additionally needed professional development. The findings in this study indicated professors of diversity-focused courses needed professional development in discourse, engagement, and the psychology of engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race. Many participants reported the difficulty of assessing White preservice teachers' awareness of and journey through racial identity. Almost all participants discussed the difficulty of working through White preservice teachers' cognitive dissonance and resistant responses to discussions about race. Ron, for example, said, "There are, of course, always those voices who attempt to direct the discussion [away from race], but it is the absolute 'silence' of some—the refusal to engage in conversation—that I find challenging."

While previous literature discussed the need for pedagogical strategies (Galman et al., 2010; Gorski, 2016), this research suggested that beyond pedagogical strategies, professors of diversity-focused courses need professional development particularly in how to: (a) interrupt White racial identity, (b) engage effectively and productively in sensitive and potentially volatile discussions about race, (c) mitigate and facilitate White preservice teachers' interactions with race-related content and racial diversity, (d) protect students of color, and (e) assess White students' understanding of and placement in the process of racial identity awareness.

Personal development. Much of this study's findings aligned with previous research reporting the particular and unique personal racial identity aspects of teaching diversity-focused courses (Galman et al., 2010; Gordon, 2005; Gorski, 2016). Seven of the eight participants in this study were aware of their racial identity and the ways they were positioned in society. Additionally, many discussed their own life-long journeys of racial awareness and efforts against personal implicit bias and White normativity. Because race is such a sensitive and divisive issue, it is important that White professors who teach diversity-focused courses are not just professionally but also personally equipped to discuss race in class.

Limitations

Study Sample

The first and most significant limitation to this study was the study sample. This study met its purpose of exploring how White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. However, its transferability was limited by the participants who volunteered. While this study did explore White professors who teach diversity-focused courses, it is likely these particular participants shared an additional binding of being racially aware and literate. Gayles et al. (2015), Gordon (2005), and Galman et

al. (2010) found that White diversity-focused professors struggled to discuss race, both generally and critically, due to Whiteness and White normativity. Given that this study explicitly focused on race, White professors of diversity-focused courses who were racially unaware and illiterate would likely not be interested or willing to participate in this study. The study sample, accordingly, limited the findings of the research as well as the implications and recommendations for practice, policy, and theory. Had the study focus been more ambiguously centered on diversity-focused content in general, there might have been a wider variety of racial identity awareness among participants. For this reason, the results of this study must be interpreted with the understanding that the explicitly stated study topic likely impacted who was and was not willing to participate. This distinction, accordingly, offers a recommendation for further research.

Instrumentation

The second limitation of this study was the use of an online asynchronous focus group as a data collection instrument. While the online asynchronous focus group offered rich data and was more practical than a face-to-face focus group, a face-to-face focus group might have provided more interactive data from participants. Because participants were only required to respond twice in each focus group forum, there was the possibility that not all responses would be addressed or discussed in depth. It was difficult for the researcher to judge whether this was a result of the asynchronous nature of the group, where participants participated outside of real-time and were not expected to respond to each response or whether there was intentional avoidance of topics. A face-to-face focus group, while limiting in certain aspects, might have produced more insight into the topic. Additionally, a lack of set time expectation in the online asynchronous group made it possible for participants to participate towards the end of the group,

limiting other participants' interactions with their responses. This limited the interaction between participants and therefore limited the data of the study.

Implication of the Results for Practice, Policy, and Theory

Practice

This research study offered several suggestions for the practice of White professors in engaging White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. Diversity-focused courses are unique in comparison to other courses in teacher education programs due to White preservice teachers' lack of experience with race, the sensitivity of race as a topic, and the expectation of personal and social construction confrontation (Gorski, 2012, 2016). Because White preservice teachers tended to be resistant to content and discussions focused on race (Crowley & Smith, 2015; Picower, 2009), White professors who teach diversity-focused courses should be personally and professionally prepared for those interactions.

Multimodal education. As affirmed by both previous literature and this research study, multimodal educational practices are significant for engaging White preservice teachers in conversations about race (Dunn et al., 2014; Pollock, 2010; Warren, 2011; Whiting & Cutri, 2015). Multimodal methods should include opportunities for White preservice teachers to emotionally and cognitively experience race-related content and racial diversity. Multimodal methods should also include avenues for White preservice teachers to personally connect to and reflect on content and experiences related to race (Galman et al., 2010; Pollock, 2010). It is particularly beneficial, as a practice, to pair different modes of education together to illicit more holistic experiences and learning. For example, providing White students the time and space to process and reflect both privately and socially allows information and experiences to be internalized with a higher likelihood of being impactful and transformative. Two particular

forms of multimodal education reported to be significantly beneficial were class discussions or peer interactions and experiences with racial diversity.

Class discussions and peer interactions provide opportunities for White preservice teachers to interact with new and often uncomfortable information while simultaneously providing space to learn from other students and negotiate experiences and meaning (Galman et al., 2010). Given many White preservice teachers' minimal experiences with and exposure to racial diversity, it is an important practice for professors of diversity-focused courses to provide opportunities for them to learn from the experiences of students of color. By giving White students the chance to hear about the life experiences of students of color, professors of diversity-focused courses can aid in bridging emotional and personal connections related to race. It is an important practice, however, to provide online class discussions in addition to in-class discussions as online discussions offer opportunities for more introverted or insecure students to engage critically.

An additional practice that would significantly impact White preservice teachers' engagement in discussing race are sustained, mitigated, and facilitated experiences with racial diversity. As White students have few previous encounters with racial diversity (Bowman, 2009; Durham-Barnes, 2015), it is important they have racially diverse experiences as they build empathy, showcase plural realities and positions in society, and helps prepare for future racially diverse classrooms.

Mitigation and facilitation. As revealed in this study, mitigation and facilitation of information and experiences should play a crucial role in the practice of engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race. Given the cognitive dissonance that arises in conversations about race, it is important to provide outlets for students to reflect on and grapple

with new, shocking, and uncomfortable information and experiences. The practice of debriefing or examining content and experiences with White preservice teachers gives opportunity for professors to correct or question White students' assumptions and encourage critical thinking. Intentional and deliberate interaction between White preservice teachers and professors of diversity-focused courses is an important practice, which can help students create meaning. Facilitation of students' reflections and discussions also allows professors to assess White students' racial awareness and literacy. While multimodal education and racially diverse experiences were reported to be significant practices impacting White preservice teachers, it is most productive when facilitated by racially aware and literate professors. If information about and interactions with race are not facilitated and mitigated, White normativity could be reified rather than interrupted and reconstructed (Picower, 2009; Sleeter, 2016). This research suggests, then, that the practice of mitigating, facilitating, debriefing, and relating information about and experiences with race is significant in discussing race with White students.

Continued racial awareness development. While much of the difficulty of discussing race in a diversity-focused course stemmed from White preservice teachers' resistance, some difficulty came from the racial identity of participants themselves. It is important that White professors who teach diversity-focused courses are racially self-aware before they begin to engage with White preservice teachers in discussions about race. As Gordon (2005) and Galman et al. (2010) pointed out, the social construction of Whiteness and White normativity impacts the way White professors both see and teach about race. In this study, six of the eight participants affirmed the need for lifelong personal racial awareness and literacy development. Because White professors face their own personal dissonance while discussing race, it is an important

practice to consistently evaluate and critically reflect on their White identity and the implicit biases it produces (Galman et al., 2010; Gordon, 2005)

Policy

Requirement of additional diversity-focused course(s). Previous research as well as this study affirmed the need for more than one diversity-focused course in teacher education programs. Given the wide spectrum of diversity topics expected to be covered in a diversity-focused, it follows that preservice teachers cannot be adequately prepared to become competent in diversity from a single course. Additionally, the combination of White normativity, White preservice teachers' racially homogenous background, and the difficulty of race as a topic result in the necessity of significant time and effort focused on content and interactions related to race. Due to the implicit bias, social construction, and reification resulting from White normativity, White preservice teachers required significant time and space to become racially aware and literate enough to competently teach and interact with students of color and their families. It is, therefore, unrealistic to expect preservice teachers to be competent in diversity issues after a single course. For this reason, to ensure that preservice teachers are competent in issues relating to diversity, teacher education programs should require more than one diversity-focused course so that preservice teachers are able to interact sufficiently and critically with issues relating to diversity.

Sustained and facilitated experiences with racial diversity. Additionally, teacher education programs should mandate sustained and facilitated experiences in racially diverse settings. Several participants in this study lamented the lack of requirement for preservice teachers to engage in racially diverse field experiences. The fact that by 2023 students of color will be the majority of students in schools combined with White preservice teachers' racial

unawareness calls for active engagement in and critical reflection on experiences in racially diverse schools (Bowman, 2010; Durham-Barnes, 2015; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Multiple participants noted that the majority of White preservice teachers would teach in racially diverse schools, especially immediately upon finishing their degree. Teacher education programs, thus, should include sustained and facilitated field experiences in racially diverse schools while diversity-focused courses mitigate and debrief experiences.

Diversity content infused into teacher education curriculum. The findings in this research study suggested that diversity-focused content should be infused into teacher education curriculum. Because of the breadth of aspects of diversity as well as the limited time and course availability, preservice teachers would become more competent in diversity-focused issues if diversity content was included throughout teacher education curriculum. Several participants in this study reported that discussing race with White preservice teachers was easier when race-related content was included in previous non-diversity-focused courses. Participants noted discussions about race were easier when students had previous information about race and experiences in thinking and talking about race. Discussions about race, then, are easier and more critical when professors scaffold information about and experiences with race.

Professional development. Finally, teacher education programs need to provide and require professional development for professors of diversity-focused courses. Previous research has reported that professors felt isolated and burned out as a result of the unique challenges accompanied with teaching a diversity-focused course (Gorski, 2012; Gorski, 2016). Previous research has also reported professors of diversity-focused courses struggling with pedagogical strategies both for effectively engaging White preservice teachers in discussions about race and for dealing with the cognitive dissonance (Gayles et al., 2016; Gorski, 2016). The findings of

this research study suggested that given the social construction of White normativity and the resistance that takes place as a result of cognitive dissonance, there is need for professional development dealing with the psychological aspect of discussing race with White preservice teachers.

Theory

Social constructionism. The results of this study cautiously supported the conceptual framework of the study, which combined social constructionism, CRT, and CWS. According to social constructionism, knowledge and meaning are created collaboratively by interactions and experiences (Gutermann, 2006). Knowledge and meaning are contextual, but are experienced and constructed in such a way as to appear objective (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Dissonance, therefore, occurs when new experiences or information challenge previous experience or previously held beliefs (Berger & Luckman, 2066). Participants confirmed the significant impact White preservice teachers' backgrounds and previous experiences had on the way they created meaning around issues related to race. Because White preservice teachers often had limited experiences with racial diversity, their experiences of White normativity were reified, leading to difficulty and discomfort when introduced to new information that questioned and conflicted previous experiences and understanding. Because White preservice teachers struggled to explore socially constructed assumptions and experiences, participants reported having to deliberately and carefully scaffold information and confront previous understanding and experiences related to race. Participants noted the necessity of deconstructing misunderstood concepts related to race while facilitating new information and experiences.

Critical race theory. CRT theorists postulate that racism is a social construct, which is inherent in society, but often invisible to the dominant (White) group (Ladson-Billings & Tate,

1995). CRT theorists contend that White normativity is so entrenched in society it is invisible to those advantaged by it (Harris, 2012). This study affirmed this aspect of CRT as participants reported the difficulty and process of becoming racially aware and racially literate. According to participants, both they and their White preservice teachers were often unaware of race as an influential factor in society until experiences or relationships disrupted and confronted their socially constructed assumptions. Six of the seven professors reported White preservice teachers' struggle to identify their race and understand that race impacts society. The invisibility of Whiteness and the impact that invisibility has on White preservice teachers impact the way White students interact with information about and experiences with race.

CRT theorists also theorize that racism has never been dismantled; instead it has been reconstructed in more socially acceptable ways (Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). CRT theorists postulate that racism, both structural and personal, has never been destroyed but rather reformulated into socially acceptable forms such as colorblindness, meritocracy, and deficit-thinking (Harris, 2012; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1995). This research study confirmed this tenet of CRT as participants reported White preservice teachers using colorblindness, meritocracy, silence, and reverse-racism to avoid talking about race. In terms of meritocracy, for instance, Sybill stated,

[They don't know how to deal with [race issues], and aren't aware of what's happening, so it's very hard for them because they want to believe that we live in a fair [society]. They're Americans, we're the good guys, this is a fair country, this is the best country in the world, and it's a meritocracy. And even though they don't know the word, that's what they believe. So that anybody can accomplish anything if they only work hard enough. And it's kind of a shock to hear that that's not really exactly true.

Likewise, in terms of colorblindness, Ron provided an example of journal entry by a White student who reflected,

As a whole I encounter people different from myself. However, in doing this assignment, I realize that I encountered more than I thought. While all of my experiences tended to be neutral, I was uncomfortable and found it odd to be instructed to look for difference. People of different cultures are a part of the fabric of the community, and we should not look at color while engaging with people.

Critical Whiteness studies. Finally, this research also affirmed tenets of CWS. CWS is similar to CRT in that CWS theorists assert that racism is entrenched in society and impacts White people's ability to see race as an issue. CWS, however, focuses not on the ability for Whiteness and White normativity to be destroyed, but on the ability for them to be interrupted and deconstructed in individuals through processes of racial identity awareness (Guess, 2006). Participants reported White preservice teachers' difficulty in identifying their own race, defining Whiteness and White culture, validating people of color's racial experiences, and understanding White privilege. However, participants also reported that often, after deliberate and strategic discussion and experiences, White preservice teachers showed both awareness of and empathy towards structural racial inequity. More than half of the participants believed many White preservice teachers began to be aware of structural racial inequity and their Whiteness during their diversity-focused courses. Some White preservice teachers were even reported to begin the process of deconstructing their Whiteness and developing allyship in how their own race might affect students of color in their future classrooms. Sybill went so far as to say,

I'd have to say that the majority of my White students have been open and responsive and willing to reflect on their society status as Whites. Most have shown concern for the

future of their students of color and (albeit with a bit of a White savior attitude) have been anxious to learn how to teach and treat these students in a just and equitable classroom.

Recommendations for Further Research

This study explored how White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. There are, however, recommendations of further research that resulted from this study. Because it was made clear that the study would focus specifically on race in diversity-focused courses, it is possible that White professors teaching diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs who did not include race in course content did not volunteer to participate in the study. This limitation could indicate that White professors who are racially aware teach diversity-focused courses in different ways, have different experiences in teaching diversity-focused courses, and have different student outcomes than racially unaware White professors. It would be beneficial to explore this topic if participants were not aware that race was the specific diversity-focused topic being studied. This could provide further implications in practice and policy for teacher education programs in both establishing curriculum requirements as well as determining who can and should be responsible for teaching diversity-focused courses.

There are other significant recommendations of further research, both qualitative and quantitative. Further research could explore the aspects and impacts of sustained and mitigated experiences in racially diverse schools on racial awareness and anti-racist advocacy. Additionally, longitudinal studies could further explore the time, effort, and space necessary for White preservice teachers to move from racial unawareness to racial awareness as well as from racial awareness into anti-racist advocacy.

While this study did not focus on the background experiences of the participants, it was significant to the study that each participant was racially aware and literate. The literature, then, would be extended further by research exploring the pedagogical impact of life experiences on racially aware and literate White professors of diversity-courses. Additionally, it would be valuable to explore whether certain variables in White professors of diversity-focused education, such as background experiences, make them more effective in discussing race with preservice teachers.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this qualitative single case study explored how White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced and engaged White preservice teachers in conversations focused on race. This research indicated that White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced White preservice teachers' backgrounds and previous experiences to be impactful in how they discussed race. Specifically, White preservice teachers who grew up in racially homogenous communities with conservative political leanings and limited or no exposure to and interactions with racial diversity, were the most challenging students with whom to discuss race. This research also indicated that, as a result of White preservice teachers' lack of experience and exposure to racial diversity, White preservice teachers tended to discuss race superficially, often leaning on stereotypes and deficit thinking rather than reflection or critical thinking.

While the research indicated that White professors of diversity-focused courses experienced a wide spectrum of responses during conversations about race, White preservice teachers tended to initially respond negatively. Negative responses included skepticism, silence, and politeness. However, it is significant to note that the findings also suggested White preservice teachers' negative responses were primarily initial responses. Participants reported

that after spending time and using effective multimodal strategies, White preservice teachers moved from negative responses into positive responses, such as openness and empathy. It should be noted, however, that many participants discussed the difference between openness, empathy, and advocacy. While openness and empathy were positive responses and indicated an increase in racial awareness and literacy, there was still a lack of feelings for or movement towards advocacy.

This research also suggested that strategies utilized by White professors of diversity-focused courses were important in discussing race with White preservice teachers. Structuring both the course as a whole and the content and activities within the course were beneficial in intentionally and deliberately preparing for difficult content and challenging discussions about race. Interactions were a key strategy used in introducing concepts related to race and developing racial awareness in White preservice teachers. While interactions between classmates and professors were significant, the most significant interactions were reported to be between White students and their classmates of color. It was reported to be substantially beneficial for White preservice teachers to interact with and learn from students of color. Participants reported that the best discussions they experienced with White students took place when students of color were willing to be open about their feelings and experiences. Finally, this research suggested utilizing multimodal education was a key strategy in discussing race with White preservice teachers. While various multimodal educational methods were reported, the most common were: class discussions, presentations, games or activities, multimedia, reading, and writing. The research suggested discussing race with White students was particularly effective when different multimodal education methods were paired together because it offered

personal connections to race that were generally cognitively removed from many White preservice teachers.

This study found that although White professors of diversity-focused courses struggled to engage White preservice teachers, many felt White students were open and willing to consider the implications of race both in society and in their own future racially diverse classrooms. There was indication that White preservice teachers' Whiteness could be, or at least begin to be, interrupted and deconstructed during diversity-focused courses with White professors who were racially aware and literate. It was an immensely positive finding that racially aware White professors of diversity-focused courses who knew how to engage in difficult conversations with cognitive dissonance with students and who were willing to engage in creative and multimodal strategies incorporating emotional and personal rather than just intellectual experiences could interrupt the Whiteness and White normativity of future teachers.

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Appendix A: Email Draft to Potential Participants

To: White Professors of Diversity-Focused Courses

Subject: Participants for a Case Study

Dear [insert name],

Greetings! My name is Sarah Brubaker, and I am a doctoral candidate in the College of Education at Concordia University. I am conducting a qualitative case study for my dissertation exploring how White professors of diversity-focused courses experience and engage White preservice teachers in race dialogue.

I am looking for White faculty members who teach at least one diversity-focused course in teacher education programs. I am interested in exploring specifically the experiences that White professors of diversity-focused courses have in engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue and the different strategies, either effective or ineffective, utilized in engaging in race conversations with White preservice teachers. White Professors of diversity-focused courses who are interested in participating are requested: (a) to complete a pre-study survey with basic context and demographic information, (b) respond reflectively to a researcher-generated prompt, (c) participate in an online asynchronous focus group at least two times per week for three weeks (there is no specific dates or times for the online asynchronous focus group interaction; participants can interact online both whenever and from wherever they would like), and (d) and meet with me for an interview lasting no longer than 90 minutes.

If you are willing, would you please contact me back through this email address by [insert date 14 days out]?

This research study has been approved by Concordia University's Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions or concerns about this research, please contact Dr. Julie McCann at jmccann@cu-portland.edu. Dr. McCann is the faculty chair of this research project.

Thank you for your time and possible participation,

Sarah Brubaker

Appendix B: Informed Consent

Research Study Title: WHITE PROFESSORS OF DIVERSITY-FOCUSED COURSES EXPERIENCING AND ENGAGING WHITE PRESERVICE TEACHERS IN RACE DIALOGUE

Researcher: Sarah Brubaker

Research Institution: Concordia University–Portland

Research Faculty Chair: Julie McCann, Ph.D.

Purpose of the study: To explore and better understand how White professors of diversity-focused courses experience and engage White preservice teachers in race conversations.

Participants will be asked to:

- 1) complete a pre-study survey,
- 2) submit a reflexive reflection to a researcher-generated prompt.
- 3) participate in an online asynchronous focus group, interacting at least two times per week for three weeks (please note that there is no specific dates or times for the online asynchronous focus group interaction; participants can interact online both whenever and from wherever they would like), and
- 4) meet for one audio-recorded interview semistructured for no longer than 90 minutes.

Risks: There are no inherent risks in participating in this study, other than being open about personal and professional experiences as a multicultural and diversity educator. In order to minimize any potential unforeseen risk, your information and the data collected from information you supply will be kept confidential.

Confidentiality: Your name will not appear on any data documents, and you will be given a pseudonym to protect your identity. All data will be kept in the researcher's home office and will be locked in a filing cabinet or secured on a password encrypted computer. No documentation shall contain both your pseudonym and your real name. No data will be stored in iCloud. You will not be identified in any publication or report of the research, and all formal documents containing your real name will or kept locked away after the research completion and publication. Please note that other participants in the online focus groups will be able to see your email address. If you would like to remain complete confidential, even from other participants, please communicate an email address to me that you would like to use that is not identifiable to you. All interviews must be audio recorded, but audio data will be destroyed immediately upon completion of transcription. All other documentation will be destroyed after three years; paper transcripts will be shredded and all digital files will be deleted.

Benefits: Potential benefits include implications for pedagogical strategies for engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue, professional implications for faculty development and support in racial identity awareness, race-issues awareness, or dialogue teaching methods, and communal and experiential implications for professors of diversity-focused courses who might feel isolated as a result of the unique and difficult content of the courses.

Right to Withdraw: As a participant, you are free to withdraw from this study at any point without penalty. You may withdraw from the study at any time for any reason, but data already collected cannot be retracted. If you choose to withdraw from the study, please email the researcher to inform of intent to withdraw at [redacted].

Right to Information: You will be formally offered opportunities to member-check collected data throughout the data collection period, but you also have the right to request a copy of all transcripts pertaining to your interview. You may contact the researcher at any time and for any reason at [redacted].

Participant Name

Date

Participant Signature

Date

Investigator Name

Date

Investigator Signature

Date

Appendix C: Email Draft of Pre-Study Survey to Participants (Qualtrics)

To: White Professors of Diversity-Focused Courses

Subject: Pre-Study Survey

Dear [insert name],

Thank you so much for taking time out of your busy schedule to participate in this research study. Before conducting the primary data collection methods, I believe that it is important to have context that directly surrounds you as a participant. Please take a few minutes to click on the following link [insert unique link to Qualtrics pre-study survey] and complete the following general questions. This pre-study survey will give me a more holistic and contextual view of you as a professor of diversity-focused courses. If you feel uncomfortable in giving any of the following pieces of information, you may skip it. Likewise, if you feel that any clarification of this information is needed, you may expound on it.

1. Age:
2. Degree:
3. Courses taught:
4. Years taught:

Again, thank you for taking the time to participate in this research study. As always, if you have questions or concerns, please feel free to reach out to myself or my dissertation faculty chair, who is the principle investigator of this study.

Sincerely,

Sarah Brubaker, M.A.

[Email redacted]

Julie McCann, Ph.D.

Dissertation Advisor

[Email redacted]

Appendix D: Email for Participant-Generated Reflection Prompt

To: White Professors of Diversity-Focused Courses

Subject: Reflection Prompt

Dear [insert name],

Again, thank you for agreeing to participate in this research study. The first method of data collection will be a reflection response to a prompt. Please read and respond to these prompts, as substantially as you wish or are able, and email your response by [set date 21 days out]. If you have any questions or concerns regarding the prompt, or would like more clarification, please let me know.

Prompts

- *What are one or two significant experiences that you have in engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue?*
- *What are one or two strategies of engagement (either effective or ineffective) that you have tried or currently utilize in engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue? Please explain.*

Appendix E: Email Directions for Online Asynchronous Focus Group

To: White Professors of Diversity-Focused Courses

Subject: Invitation to Google Group for Online Asynchronous Focus Group

Dear [insert name],

I am sending directions for the Google Group where we will conduct the online asynchronous focus group. I would like to stress that this focus group is asynchronistic, which means that there are no set dates or times for meetings, so you are able to log in and interact with the focus group whenever and from wherever you would like. The only expectation is that you interact or post in each of the two threads at least once per week for three weeks. The beginning date for the focus group is [enter date 7 days out from the return of the reflection, which is set for 21 days after informed consent is returned] and goes until [enter date 21 days past the beginning date for the focus group].

Google Group Directions

You will be receiving an email from my email address [redacted] shortly, inviting you to join the Google Group “Experiencing and Engaging White Preservice Teachers in Race Dialogue”. As the focus group platform is through Google Groups, email addresses must be Gmail in order to participate.

Other participants will be able to see the email address that you use, so if you would like to remain completely confidential from the other participants in the study, please ensure that I have a preferred Gmail address that is not identifiable to you. You may create a Gmail address just for the study with a non-identifiable name, if you would like. If the Google Groups invitation is sent to a Gmail address that you do not wish to use for the focus group, please contact me immediately and I will ensure the correct Gmail address is used.

Once you click “accept invitation,” you will be taken to the section of the group for your initial profile page, before you actually enter the Group. Again, please note that the other participants in the Google Group can see your email address. On this page:

3. You have the ability to link the Group to your google profile
4. You have the ability to choose your display name

Once you are finished making your identification profile, click “Save my changes,” and you will be taken into the focus group.

Focus Group Directions

There will be two different group threads on the Google Group: one pertaining to your experiences engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue, and one pertaining to the strategies that you have used or have tried to use in engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue. There will already be one post (question) in each thread. Please post at least one time in each thread (two total) each week for three continuous weeks. You, of course, may post as many times as you would like. The Google Group will be open to you to participate from [enter start date – enter end date].

If you have any questions, or any problems with the Google Group, please feel free to email me at [redacted].

Thank you again for participating in this research study and I look forward to hearing and learning about your experiences and your pedagogical strategies!

Thank you,
Sarah Brubaker

Appendix F: Semistructured One-on-One Interview Questions

***Prior to commencing the interview, the researcher will make sure that all forms are signed and that she is introduced**

Participant: _____ Date: _____

Thank you so much for agreeing to participate in this research study and for being willing to sit down and speak with me about your experiences of and strategies for engaging your White preservice teachers in conversations about race. The purpose of this interview is to explore your experiences and your engagement of White preservice teachers and to clarify or expound on any of the other previous data collected from the reflection document or the course observation. It also is to give you a chance to share and express the things that you have experienced and the things that you think are important in creating and maintaining critical race dialogue in diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs.

I'm hoping to be able to audiotape our conversation today so that I can make sure I have an accurate record of what we discuss and to make sure your responses are in context and accurate to you. Is it alright with you that I audiotape this? Your name will not be revealed in the tape and will only be accessible to and reviewed by myself, as the researcher, and my University committee members. My committee members are not connected in any way to any of your employers and they will not be able to recognize your voice. All audio files will be locked in a locked file cabinet with no indication of who you, as the interviewee, are, and the file will not be uploaded on to any iCloud or internet storage. Upon my completion of transcription, you will have the opportunity to review the transcript to check both for accuracy and for clarification. Upon your confirmation of the transcript of the interview, the audio file will be deleted immediately.

I understand that this is and can be a very sensitive topic for discussion – that is one of the reasons that I am interested in exploring it. I do believe that it is crucial for future teachers to be able to successfully and effectively teach any and all of the students that may be in their classrooms, and that race conversations during teacher preparation can be one way to accomplish this. Because this research is based on your experiences, there are absolutely no right or wrong answers, and there are no answers that I am looking for to be answered in any specific way. This research, and this interview, is all about you – your experiences and your strategies.

Any questions?

There are 4 major areas that I would like for us to discuss: you as a teacher of diversity-focused courses, the diversity-focused course itself, your experience engaging White preservice teachers in race conversations, and your strategies for engaging White preservice teachers in race conversations. Some of the questions may be probes either to clarify previous answers or to clarify or discuss previous data collected from the reflection and the course observation.

Are you ready to start?

Question 1: I am interested in how you came to teach a diversity-focused course in a teacher education program.

- a. How did you come to teach a/multiple diversity-focused courses in this teacher education program?
- b. How are diversity-focused courses assigned to faculty?
- c. Do you enjoy teaching diversity-focused courses?
- d. In your opinion, and based on your experience, what is/are the purpose(s) of diversity-focused courses in teacher education programs?
- e. In your opinion, and based on your experience, what specifically is/are the purpose(s) of race dialogue in diversity-focused courses?

Question 2: I am interested in your general experience with race conversations in diversity-focused courses and the ways in which they meet or don't meet goals and objectives and the ways in which the university influences or participates in the content.

- a. How much of your course is specifically tied to issues of race and racism?
- b. How does the university assure that graduating White preservice teachers are racially competent and aware teacher candidates? Do you see it as a priority in the program?
 - a. Probe if necessary

Question 3: I am interested in your experience engaging White preservice teachers in race conversations

- a. How do you experience your White students engaging in issues and conversations regarding race or racism?
 - a. Probe if necessary
- b. What are you most proud of in working with White preservice teachers?
 - a. Probe if necessary
- c. What is the most challenging aspect of it?
 - a. Probe if necessary

Question 4: I am interested in the ways you engage your White preservice teachers in race conversations

- a. How do you engage your White students in race dialogue? On other words, do you have specific pedagogical or dialogic strategies and techniques?
 - a. What techniques have you used that have been successful? Why do you think it/they was/were successful?
 - b. What techniques have you used that have not been successful? Why do you think it/they was/were not successful?
- b. How do you measure and assess the growth that students make? Can you give examples of how they have or have not demonstrated growth?
 - a. Probe if necessary

Question 5: Closure:

- a. Is there anything you wish I would have asked you, but I did not?
- b. Is there anything that you would like to share that you did not get to?

Appendix G: Online Focus Group Facilitation Prompts

Welcome Message:

Hello! Thank you all so much for being willing to participate in my dissertation research. This is the second data collection method and is an online asynchronous focus group. I am Sarah Brubaker, a doctoral candidate with Concordia University–Portland, and I will be moderating this focus group. You were all invited to participate in this focus group because you are all White professors of diversity-focused courses who teach in teacher education programs. This focus group has two threads because there are two aspects to this research study. The first is your experiences engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue, and the second is your strategies for engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue.

You may participate in the focus group at your convenience whenever and from wherever you would like, though it is expected that you will post at least once in each thread (twice total) each week for the three weeks that the focus group is occurring. You, of course, may post and interact as much on each thread as you would like to. This focus group will be open from [enter beginning date] to [enter ending date], and I will email a general reminder each week to post in the upcoming week.

There will be three essential questions in each thread, but based on the responses and interactions to each question, I will facilitate more questions as we go along. However, please respond to and interact with each other and ask each other questions – my role as facilitator is to guide the group discussion.

There are no right or wrong answers – you might agree or disagree with someone, but please be respectful of each other. There is already one question in each thread for you to answer, and as the focus group continues, I will facilitate and post more questions as we go along. Please feel free to respond directly to the question or directly to what another participant has written in response. You, of course, are able to put forth your own questions to the focus group as well! Please think of this as an actual focus group, which is conversation-based, only online and at your convenience. The more specific and detailed your answers, the better!

Again, thank you for participating in this research and I look forward to interacting with you all.

Thread 1: Experiencing Engaging White Preservice Teachers in Race Dialogue

Q1: If you were to rate your overall experience in engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue during your diversity-focused course, what would you rate it and why? Please be as specific as you would like.

Q2: What are your positive experiences like in engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue? Please be as specific as you would like.

Q3: What are your negative experiences like in engaging White preservice teachers in race dialogue? Please be as specific as you would like?

Q4: What would make your experience engaging White per-service teachers in race dialogue better?

Thread 2: Strategies for Engaging White Preservice Teachers in Race Dialogue

Q1: What is one specific strategy that you use to engage your White preservice teachers in race dialogue that has been effective? Why do you think it has been effective?

Q2: What is one specific strategy that you use or have tried to use to engage your White preservice teachers in race dialogue that has not been effective? What do you see as the problems with it or why it was ineffective?

Q3: If you use specific strategies for engaging your White preservice teachers in race conversations, how did you find or come up with this strategy?

Q4: In terms of pedagogical strategies for engaging your White preservice teachers in race dialogue, what support or development have you had or would you like to have?

Appendix H: Statement of Original Work

The Concordia University Doctorate of Education Program is a collaborative community of scholar-practitioners, who seek to transform society by pursuing ethically-informed, rigorously-researched, inquiry-based projects that benefit professional, institutional, and local educational contexts. Each member of the community affirms throughout their program of study, adherence to the principles and standards outlined in the Concordia University Academic Integrity Policy. This policy states the following:

Statement of academic integrity.

As a member of the Concordia University community, I will neither engage in fraudulent or unauthorized behaviors in the presentation and completion of my work, nor will I provide unauthorized assistance to others.

Explanations:

What does “fraudulent” mean?

“Fraudulent” work is any material submitted for evaluation that is falsely or improperly presented as one’s own. This includes, but is not limited to texts, graphics and other multi-media files appropriated from any source, including another individual, that are intentionally presented as all or part of a candidate’s final work without full and complete documentation.

What is “unauthorized” assistance?

“Unauthorized assistance” refers to any support candidates solicit in the completion of their work, that has not been either explicitly specified as appropriate by the instructor, or any assistance that is understood in the class context as inappropriate. This can include, but is not limited to:

- Use of unauthorized notes or another’s work during an online test
- Use of unauthorized notes or personal assistance in an online exam setting
- Inappropriate collaboration in preparation and/or completion of a project
- Unauthorized solicitation of professional resources for the completion of the work.

Statement of Original Work (Continued)

I attest that:

1. I have read, understood, and complied with all aspects of the Concordia University–Portland Academic Integrity Policy during the development and writing of this dissertation.
2. Where information and/or materials from outside sources has been used in the production of this dissertation, all information and/or materials from outside sources has been properly referenced and all permissions required for use of the information and/or materials have been obtained, in accordance with research standards outlined in the *Publication Manual of The American Psychological Association*.

Sarah H. Brubaker

Digital Signature

Sarah H. Brubaker

Name (Typed)

8/1/2019

Date